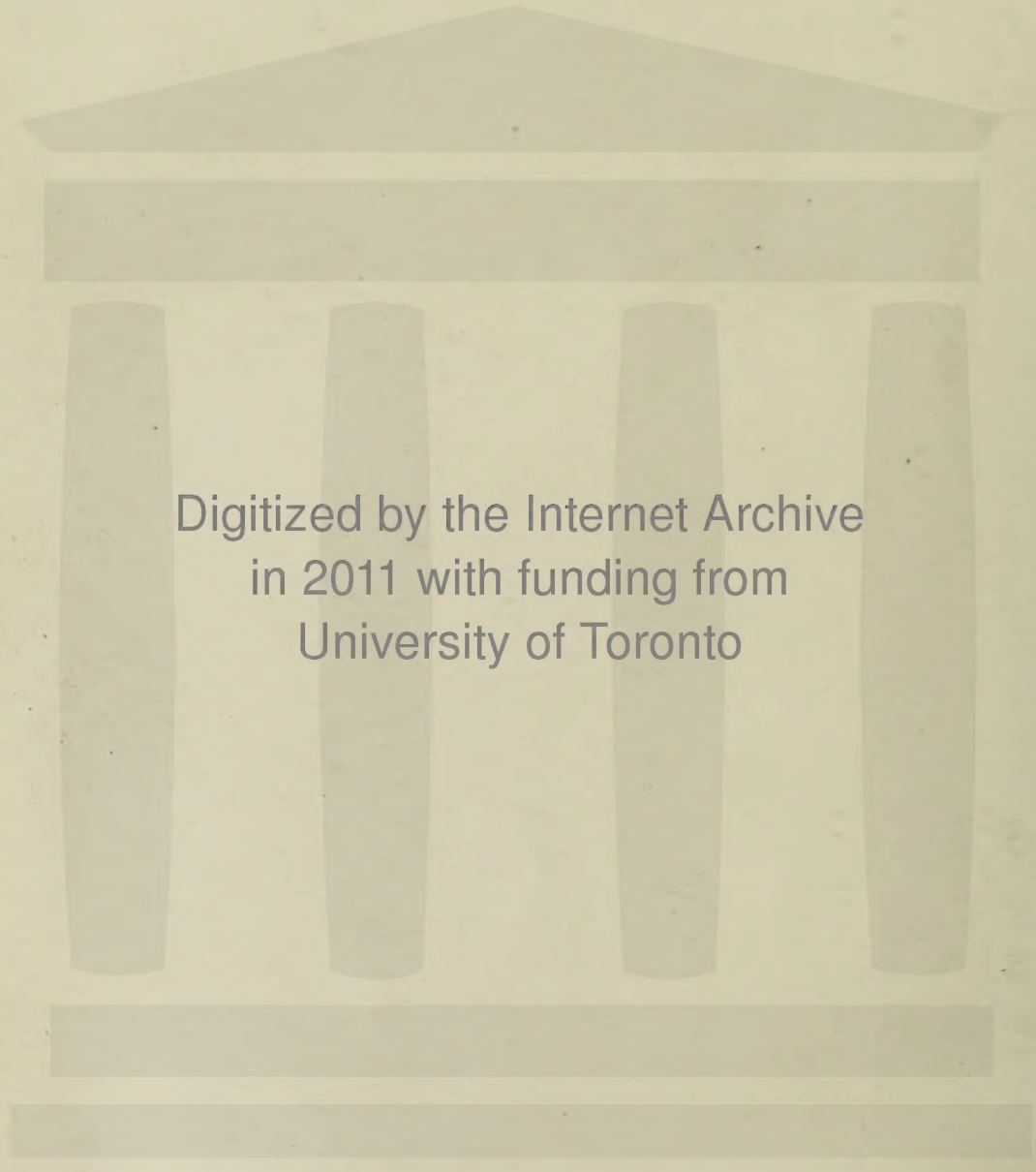
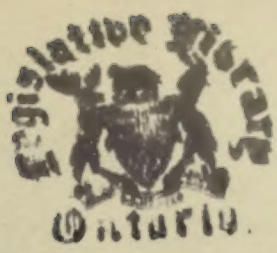
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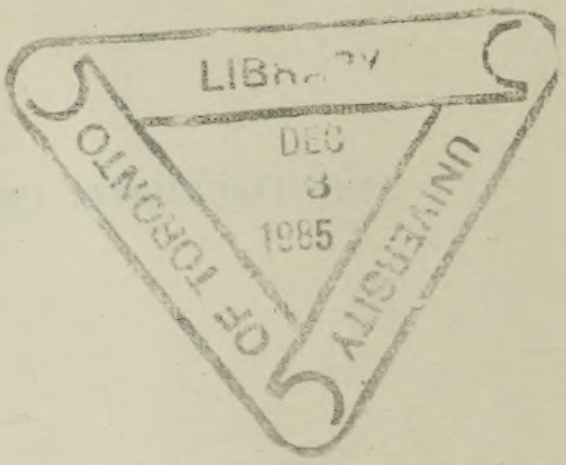
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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The Shaping of the Great Campaign.

As the Democratic hosts are marshaling for their great quadrennial rally this year, to be held in the city of Denver, the people of the country have already adjusted their minds to the work of the National Republican Convention at Chicago, and are to some extent discounting the course that the campaign will follow. Mr. Bryan's candidacy for the Democratic nomination has for a long time been predicated upon the belief that Mr. Taft would be his opponent, and that the general outcome of the Chicago convention would be practically that with which the country is now familiar. The delegates to the Chicago convention gave the country no surprises, and it is not likely that the Democrats at Denver will be in any respects more spontaneous or mercurial. Their candidate has been selected,—almost beyond the possibility of rejection,—for at least two years past; and their platform, it is within bounds to assert, will have been even more carefully prepared for them in advance than was that of the Republicans which, with modifications, was adopted at Chicago.

Mr. Bryan,—Earlier and Later.

Four years ago the Democrats went before the country with a candidate little known in his own State and wholly unknown to the country at large. This year both candidates are public men in the broadest sense, whose careers are thoroughly familiar to the voters of all parties in every State, county, and hamlet, and who have been seen and heard by millions of their fellow-countrymen. Eight years ago Mr. Bryan made a brilliant and powerful campaign under great difficulties. We had completed a successful war, which had involved us in the necessity of assuming responsibilities for widely scattered insular territories. Mr. McKinley's administration was strong and popular. He had surrounded himself with men like Mr. Root, Mr. John Hay, and others of commanding ability, and he was coming before the people for re-election, with Governor Roosevelt, of New York, as his "running mate" on the ticket. Mr. McKinley had called William H. Taft from the bench to send him out to organize and administer the Philippines, as the best evidence he could give the people of the high and serious motives with which he was endeavoring to deal with the new problems entailed upon us by the extension of our flag to regions beyond the continent of North America.

Handicapped in His Fight Eight Years Ago.

We were obviously involved in those new tasks of the era 1900 in such a way that there was nothing practical to do but face them and try to give a good account of ourselves. Mr. Bryan himself had supported the war with Spain, and if he had been President by virtue of success in his campaign of 1896 we should just as certainly have had the war; and surely no one can say that when it came to the final settlement we should not, even with Bryan in the White House, have felt it our duty to administer the Philippines. We should almost certainly have acquired Porto Rico. And we could scarcely have reorganized Cuba, and launched her upon her new career, with any less care for retention of ultimate control for her assured well-being than we have under the existing arrangements. The exigencies of public business, in other words, were such that the re-election of McKinley, the man at the helm, was a foregone conclusion. Mr. Bryan made a campaign of great endurance and power, based chiefly upon an attempt at destructive criticism of what he called our new policy of "imperialism." But the country was dealing with conditions rather than with theories. It was in no mood to dismiss constructive

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men of affairs in order to substitute their destructive critics. If Mr. Bryan had been elected in 1896 he would have been compelled to wind up the Spanish war with some sort of positive program involving the destiny of Spain's island empire. And he would have found himself engaged in the carrying out of important policies at home having to do with the readjustment of the public revenues, the reorganization of the army, and so on. Under such circumstances Mr. Bryan would have been placed in the position of a man transacting great affairs not yet completed. The Republicans would have been forced into the position of destructive critics, and the country would probably have decided to keep Mr. Bryan at the helm for four years more. In short, a party's attitude toward unfinished public business is obviously dependent upon the simple question whether or not it is in power.

Mr. Bryan's Ill-timed Silver Fight.

Mr. Bryan was further handicapped eight years ago by his insistence upon the reaffirmation by his party of every declaration of the famous Chicago platform of 1896, the chief doctrine of which was that of the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio with gold of 16 to 1. The business interests of the country felt that the sound-money victory of 1896 absolutely required for its firm establishment another defeat of Mr. Bryan. Thus, under the circumstances which surrounded him eight years ago, Mr. Bryan's fight, though foredoomed to failure, must be regarded as one of the most plucky and remarkable exploits of campaigning in the history of the country, and one which no other member of his party at that time could have equaled. It is not in accord, therefore, with the truth of political history to set Mr. Bryan down as a leader always destined to defeat. The silver fight of 1896 was based upon a mistaken estimate of the conditions of the general bullion market,—that is to say, of the production of silver and gold as commodities,—and a miscalculation of the effects that would have been produced by opening the American mints to silver without concurrent action by European mints.

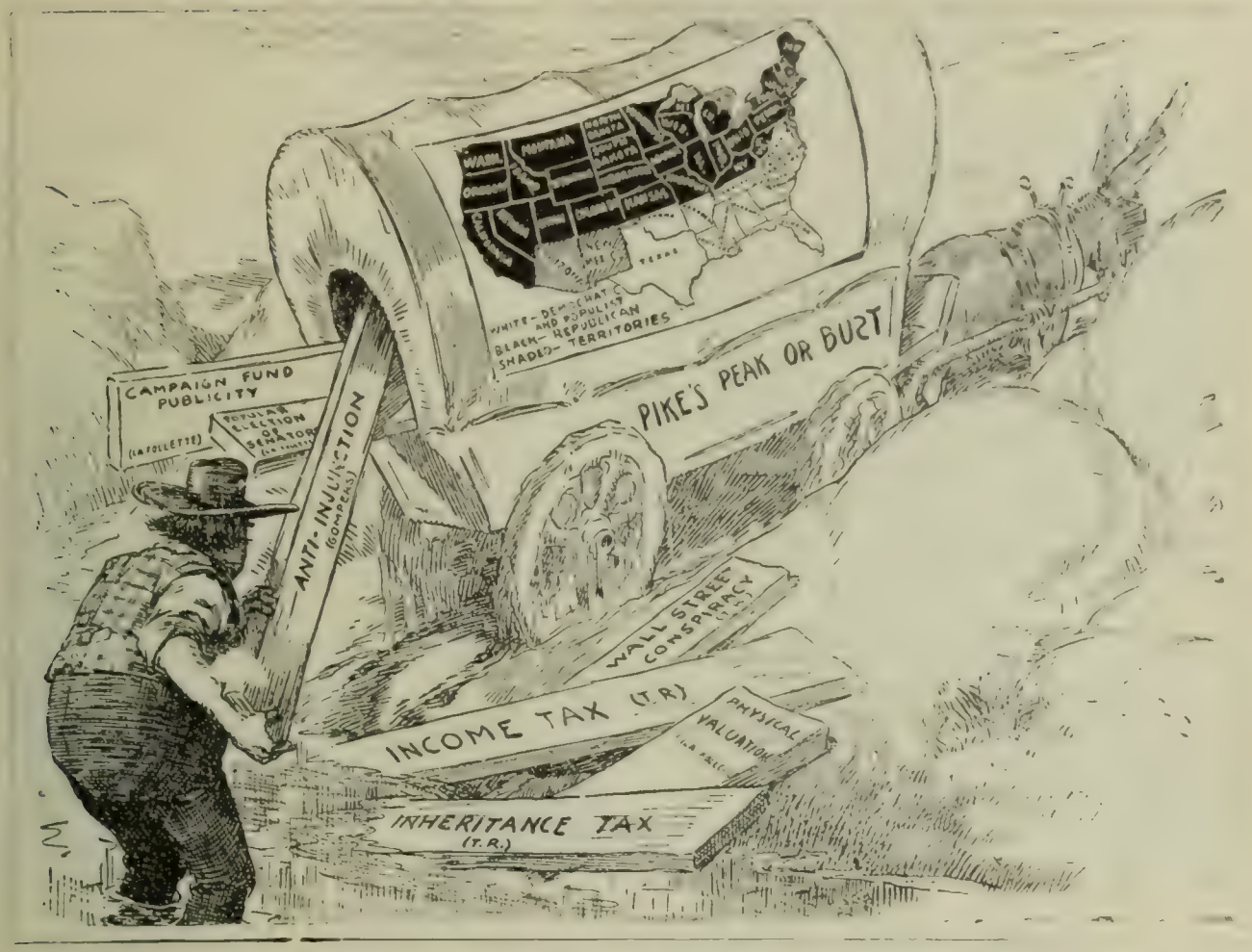
Twelve Years Since 1896.

But there was nothing ignoble or dishonest about the Chicago platform, which was adopted in a mood of intense conviction and sincerity by an unbossed convention of earnest men who were not trying to pay their debts in cheaper money, but were trying to establish what they thought to be a high rule of justice. They were mistaken in their premises and in their statistics. They have now learned that monetary systems cannot be based upon the idea of an unchanging ratio of value between two different metals. Mr. Bryan did not originate the free-silver movement, and Republicans as well as Democrats were responsible for its doctrines and its practical demands. He was simply put forward to lead the movement at a time when to have adopted its proposals would have been hazardous in the extreme. It is twelve



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THE NEW AUDITORIUM AT DENVER, IN WHICH THE DEMOCRATIC CONVENTION WILL BE HELD.



MR. BRYAN LOADING HIS PLANK-WAGON FOR DENVER.
From the *World* (New York).

years since Mr. Bryan made that first great campaign of 1896. He was then thirty-six years of age, and he is now forty-eight. In all these years he has not held public office, but he has been constantly before the people as a party leader and an expounder of questions and issues from the standpoint of the so-called "radical" wing of the Democratic party. The very large recent output of gold has settled the money question in so far as the metallic standard is concerned, and Mr. Bryan accepts the settlement.

Bryan's Present Popularity.

Gradually the more conservative leaders of the Democratic party, and especially those of the Eastern States, have come into cordial relations with Mr. Bryan; so that he is in a position of favor and good standing that he did not enjoy in the conventions of 1896, 1900, and 1904. In those conventions the strain between the conservative and radical wings of the party was so severe that much of the energy was wasted in factional strife which should have been expended in wisely concerted assault upon the opposing party. All these things are recalled to mind in order to bring out more clearly by contrast the very different position in which Mr. Bryan finds himself this year. His party will be more harmonious than in any previous political year since he has been identified with it. He has made steady growth in acquaintance and in popular good-will by virtue of the exercise of the two professions which he has now for a good while past been carrying on. His chief work has been that of a platform lecturer, in which capacity he has been almost everywhere in the country speaking to large audiences often upon subjects not of a controversial sort, and by his eloquence and tact dispelling that strong prejudice against him that had survived from the bitter fight against free silver. His other calling is that of an editor and writer, and his weekly paper has kept him in touch with large numbers of his political followers. He is ten times as widely acquainted with men in all walks of life as any other member of the Democratic party. He is more in demand as a speaker than ever before, and his readiness and skill as an orator have greatly increased.



Photograph by Frederic B. Hyde, Washington.

MR. BRYAN AS SEEN IN WASHINGTON IN MAY.

(Mr. James J. Hill and Mr. John Mitchell in the rear.)

Bryan and Roosevelt in the Platforms.

We shall not know precisely what the Bryan platform contains until it is made public when presented to the Denver convention; but Mr. Bryan has expressed himself so constantly upon current issues that the general trend of the platform could doubtless be fairly well predicted by any experienced journalist or shrewd political observer. The work of the Republican convention at Chicago was naturally followed with the most careful interest by Mr. Bryan himself and by his trusted supporters and advisers, who were on the spot studiously noting every vulnerable item in the making up of the convention's record. The popularity of President Roosevelt, in association with those policies which he is considered as representing, constitutes the most valuable political asset that could possibly enter into this year's campaign. So strongly has this been realized that the Republican leaders would have been either imbecile or false if they had not proposed to make over this asset with as little impairment as possible to the credit and strength of their new ticket and platform. The Democrats, on the other hand, were hoping that the Republican convention in spite of itself would be led by some of its entangling alliances into compromises, straddles, insincerities, and a failure to ring true for the best ideals,—which could be so exposed in the Denver platform and on the stump as to impair or perhaps to divert the Roosevelt asset in the process of its transfer. In other words, it will be seen that Mr. Bryan and the Denver platform will try to make it appear that they are better representatives of the so-called Roosevelt doctrines and policies than are Mr. Taft and the Chicago platform:

Roosevelt and His Party.

It is an open fact, of course, that the Roosevelt policies have had their strong Republican opponents, and that these have been powerful in the councils of the ruling coteries of both houses of Congress. As the preliminary work of finding a candidate proceeded, the distinction between the "progressives," led by the Roosevelt administration, and the so-called "reactionaries" became more sharply accentuated. But it was also clear that the Roosevelt element of the party represented the vast majority of the Republican voters. Mr. Taft's strength as a candidate was due above all else to the knowledge that Mr. Roosevelt was advocating his selection, and to the further knowledge that, as a great member of the Roosevelt administration, Mr. Taft was thoroughly known both as to his views and also as to his remarkable qualifications for the Presidency. Thus the real platform of the Republican party in this campaign is Mr. Taft himself as endorsed and guaranteed by Mr. Roosevelt.

Taft Entitled to All the Assets.

Mr. Bryan and his supporters will doubtless show great deftness and skill in criticising the resolutions as adopted at Chicago, and will point out what can be made to appear as serious inconsistencies. But when all this is done there will remain the great fact that Mr. Taft was easily nominated on the first ballot, securing 702 votes in a convention numbering 980 delegates. Furthermore, this nomination was acquiesced in by the remaining members of the convention, nearly all of whom would gladly have voted for Mr. Taft on the first ballot if they had not been bound by instructions to cast their votes for the so-called "favorite sons" of their own States. Thus many of the New York delegates who voted for Hughes openly stated that they desired to vote for Taft; and the entire delegation was heartily in sympathy with the nomination. Almost the same thing might be said of the Pennsylvania vote, which was cast for Senator



Photograph by Emmett V. O'Neill for the Chicago *Tribune.*

THE COLISEUM AT CHICAGO IN CONVENTION TIME.

Knox; the Illinois vote, which, by way of compliment, was announced for Speaker Cannon, and the Indiana vote, which was accorded to Vice-President Fairbanks. Even the Wisconsin vote, which was for Senator La Follette, was cast by men who were warmly cordial to Mr. Taft. In short, the differences between the so-called "reactionaries" and the main body of the convention did not cut deep enough to create any bitterness against the winning candidate. Mr. Taft is as completely and heartily the accepted candidate of his party as any man could possibly be. Seldom if ever has any American party had a finer candidate, or one upon whose choice it had better reason for self-congratulation.

Getting Control of the Convention.

If Mr. Roosevelt had contented himself with allowing it to be known that he did not seek a renomination, and had not been active in helping the party to reach a pre-convention agreement upon his successor, he would have been renominated at Chicago. Nothing could have prevented that result. But the preliminary canvass for Mr. Taft had been conducted with great thoroughness, and Mr. Roosevelt's prediction that the Secretary of War would have 700 votes was fulfilled. The Taft managers, however, were somewhat apprehensive until the contests between the rival delegations from the Southern States had been settled. The temporary roster of the convention is made up by the Republican National Committee, consisting of one member from each State, and this committee met in Chicago several days before the opening of the convention to determine the contests. Two hundred and twenty-three seats were involved; and if the National Committee had been controlled by the opponents of Mr. Taft and had been disposed to take advantage of its opportunity, a clear Taft majority might conceivably have been prevented. But regardless of its predilections, the National Committee dealt fairly with the contests, and with hardly any exceptions the Taft delegates were seated and the contestants rejected.

Mr. Hitchcock's Able Management.

Most of these contests had been trumped up for the sake of making confusion, and were without serious title to consideration. The claims of the Taft delegates, on the other hand, were presented with a thoroughness and care and a regard for legal evidence that the veteran

members of the National Committee had never seen equaled before. The critical business of managing these cases on behalf of Mr. Taft was in the hands of Mr. Frank H. Hitchcock, whose unbounded success lifted him at once to the position of the most influential manager in the entire convention, and gave him a strong position in the conduct and in the councils of his party. The Hitchcock method had worked so thoroughly that it was certain enough that the Credentials Committee of the convention itself would accept the temporary roll and not attempt to diminish Mr. Taft's pre-established majority.

Organizing the Convention.

It is always difficult for a great convention of this kind to have a mind and will of its own in matters of a routine character. It is of much consequence, therefore, that the National Committee, which arranges the preliminaries, should be made up of members responsive to the best sentiments of the party. All such items of business as the selection of temporary and permanent presiding officers and the chairmen of the principal committees are usually planned in advance by the National Committee. Thus, Senator Burrows, of Michigan, was made temporary chairman at Chicago, and Senator Lodge, of Massachusetts, was made permanent chairman. Senator Hopkins, of Illinois, was chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, and Senator Fulton, of Oregon, chairman of the Committee on Credentials. The personnel of the organization was not dashing, inspiring, or brilliant, and could not lift the great gathering to the high levels of Republican idealism; but it was a "safe" and experienced personnel, chosen to avoid antagonizing the "reactionaries" in matters of the less essential sort.

Making the Party Platform.

The question of credentials having been settled, Mr. Taft's nomination was assured unless something should happen to cause the much-predicted stampede to Roosevelt. The one great anxiety of the Taft men was to keep the situation in hand and expedite business



Photograph by Emmett V. O'Neill for the Chicago *Tribune.*

THE GENERAL SCENE IN THE COLISEUM AT CHICAGO.



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington.

MR. FRANK H. HITCHCOCK, WHO MANAGED FOR TAFT AT CHICAGO.

up to the time of the presenting of candidates and the taking of the first ballot. Delay was threatened by a discovered difficulty in agreeing about details of the resolutions to be adopted as the party's platform for the campaign. These party platforms are never left to be drafted on the spur of the moment. It is always the case that some one who has been designated by those most concerned comes to the convention with a platform that has been written with care and inspected as to its more crucial planks by those best entitled to have an opinion. This draft, as a rule, forms the basis of discussion in the meetings first of the Sub-Committee on Resolutions and afterward of the full committee. In the case of last month's convention the draft was brought by Mr. Wade Ellis, Attorney-General of Ohio, who had prepared last year's Republican platform of his State. It had been approved by Secretary Taft and had been submitted to President Roosevelt, who had read it with approval as regards specific planks which he deemed important, although it is to be stated that the President had not read those parts of the platform which finely eulogize his own services to the country and praise the work of his administration. Mr. Hopkins, though chairman of the committee, did not draft the platform, and was selected to present the resolutions to the convention by reason of his belonging to the State and city where the convention was held.

The "Injunction" Plank.

Only one plank in the platform caused a long and serious controversy in the resolutions committee, and this plank is one which has no relation to party differences and which is a



Mr. Harry S. New, of Indiana, chairman of the National Committee.

Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, of Massachusetts, permanent chairman.

Senator Julius C. Burrows, of Michigan, temporary chairman.

THREE IMPORTANT OFFICIALS OF THE CHICAGO CONVENTION.

difficult thing to deal with as a popular issue. The plank in question has to do with the defining or limiting of the power of the federal courts to issue writs of injunction. The President, as is well known, has repeatedly asked Congress to pass an act that would prevent the undue and arbitrary use of the power of injunction, while not in any way impairing the normal authority of the courts. The plank as it stood in the original draft of the platform was a mild one which good lawyers and judges declared was in no way objectionable. But the so-called "conservatives" in the convention had been instructed to the effect that the judiciary of America is so sacred a thing that it is not only never to be criticised, but that it is even treasonable to suggest modifications of rules of court procedure. The demand for some regulation of the use of injunctions comes almost wholly from the leaders of organized labor. We should not have heard of any objection to the President's proposal for a better regulation of the methods of procedure in the issuance of injunction writs but for the intensely bitter and persistent work of an important organization of manufacturers which has undertaken to exterminate organized labor altogether. The President's position was the moderate, just, and fair one as between the contending interests, Every kind of pressure was used to secure his consent and Mr. Taft's to the dropping of the subject from the platform. But they refused to yield.

The Compromise.

The plank as accepted by him did not go nearly as far as the labor men would have wished, yet they would doubtless have accepted it under the circumstances. The Manufacturers' Association was determined that the platform should contain no allusion whatever to the subject. Neither of these two parties in interest belonged to the one great political organization or to the other; and the convention should not have permitted them to force the injunction question into undue prominence. A compromise was finally agreed upon and accepted by the platform committee, the Administration leaders at Washington, and the convention itself. The plank relating to this subject as adopted reads as follows:

> The Republican party will uphold at all times the authority and integrity of the courts, State and federal, and will ever insist that their powers to enforce their process and to protect life, liberty, and property shall be preserved inviolate. We believe, however, that the rules of procedure in the federal courts with respect to the issuance of the writ of injunction should be more accurately defined by statute, and that no injunction or temporary restraining order should be issued without notice, except where irreparable injury would result from delay, in which case a speedy hearing thereafter should be granted.

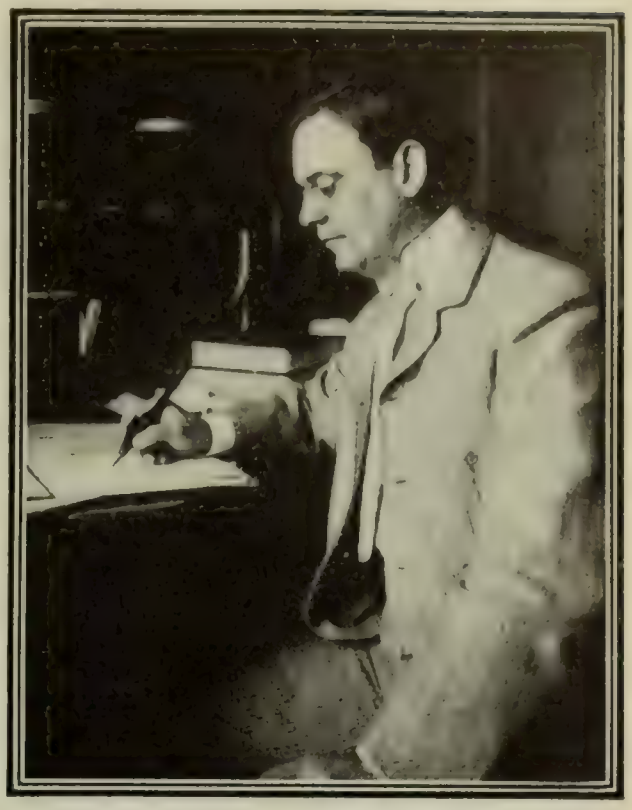
As originally brought before the Committee on Resolutions the plank was as follows:

> We declare for such amendments of the statutes of procedure in the federal courts with respect to the use of the writ of injunction as will on the one hand prevent the summary issue of such orders without proper consideration, and on the

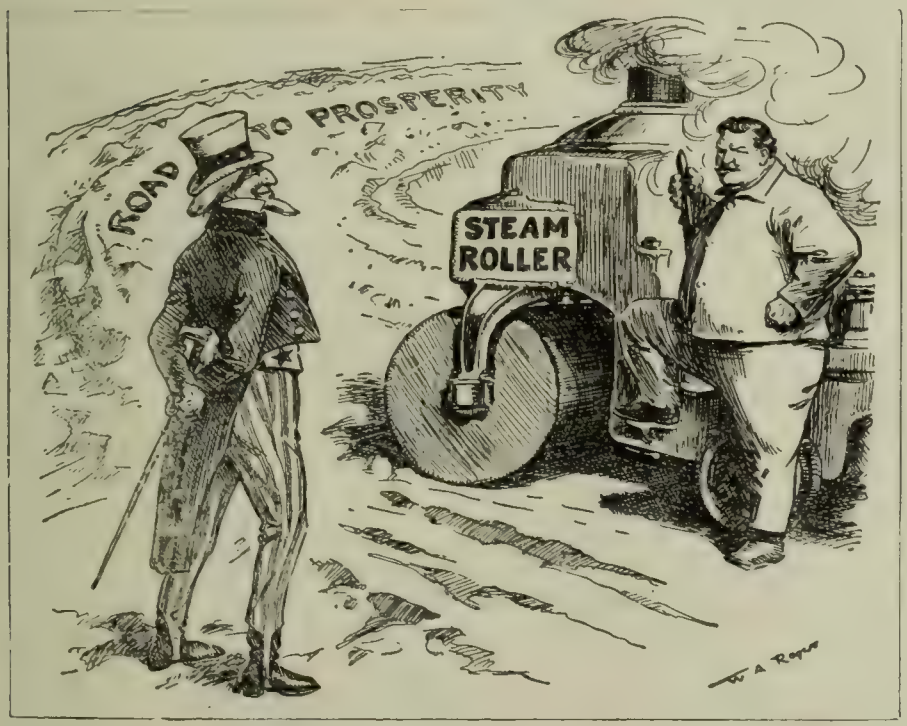
other will preserve undiminished the power of the courts to enforce their process to the end that justice may be done at all times and to all parties.

The Courts Need No Defenders.

The American courts have never in any former period exercised authority in so many and such far-reaching directions as at the present time; and never has their position been better assured and more firmly grounded. This position could not possibly be altered without an amendment to the Constitution of the United States. The use of the writ of injunction has multiplied greatly under new conditions, and it is obvious that it can at times be made to work hardship against those put under restraint without notice and without opportunity to be promptly heard in their own behalf. The selection of wise, high-principled, and broad-minded men for positions on the bench is of course more vital than the details of court procedure. Thus, the next President of the United States will probably have to appoint three or four members of the Supreme Court. Those who would regard Mr. Taft as better qualified to appoint Justices of the Supreme Court than Mr. Bryan should be willing to defer somewhat to Mr. Taft's opinion as to a detail of court procedure to which great masses of voters attach importance. Mr. Gompers and some of the other labor leaders denounce the plank as adopted at Chicago, and they will naturally count upon securing a more sweeping form of words in the Democratic platform at Denver. But the Chicago plank at least means all that it says; and in view of the status of the injunction question in the session of Congress recently ended it is reasonable to believe that a Republican victory this year will be followed by the enactment of a law early next winter defining and limiting the use of the writ of injunction. A moderate enactment will be a good starting point, and after experience of its working it will be possible to amend it if it is not found satisfactory. However sweeping an anti-injunction plank might be adopted at Denver, there is not much likelihood that anything more than a very moderate and tentative measure could be enacted at Washington for some years to come. In our opinion, the plank as adopted at Chicago supports the President's position in principle,



ATTORNEY-GENERAL WADE ELLIS, OF OHIO.
(Who drafted the platform.)



"IF YOU CAN SMOOTH OUT THIS ROAD, WILLIAM, I CAN REST EASY."
From the *Herald* (New York).

and the agreement reached was an honorable solution of the one matter upon which there was serious and protracted strain in the building of the platform.

Bryan's Expressed Criticisms.

This opinion of ours, to be sure, disagrees absolutely with that which Mr. Bryan has already expressed since the Chicago convention in his weekly paper, the *Commoner,* and again in extensive interviews. He declares that the Chicago plank merely reiterates the language of the existing federal statute. But he ignores those words in the plank which say specifically that "the rules of procedure in the federal courts with respect to the issuance of the writ of injunction should be more accurately defined by statute." It is true that the Chicago plank is not strong or explicit; but it is not correct to say that this plank does not call for changes in the existing law with a view to preventing the abuse of the writ of injunction. Mr. Bryan's utterances, of course, make it plain that the Denver platform will try to satisfy Mr. Gompers as respects this matter of court injunctions.

Roosevelt Policies En Bloc.

The platform opens with a sweeping characterization of the accomplishments of Mr. Roosevelt's administration, and then proceeds as follows:

> These are the achievements that will make for Theodore Roosevelt his place in history, but more than all else the great things he has done will be an inspiration to those who have yet greater things to do. We declare our unfaltering adherence to the policies thus inaugurated and pledge their continuance under a Republican administration of the government.

This last sentence really sums up the platform, and it might have been adopted as sufficient in itself. For certainly it was an Administration convention, and it would have nominated Mr. Roosevelt in the twinkling of an eye if he had not succeeded in convincing the party that the best thing to do was to nominate Mr. Taft and elect him as a foremost exponent of the so-called Roosevelt policies. Mr. Roosevelt did not create the conditions under which these policies have taken form, nor did he originate what could not have been widely accepted if it had been the sheer doctrinaire creation of any one man's intellect. Mr. Roosevelt happens to possess great and unflagging energy, a flexible mind, a quick, firm grasp, and an almost unequaled power of courageous leadership. The policies are not his, but are those of a progressive, well-ordered American civilization; and it has merely fallen to his lot to be a great leader in expounding those policies, in trying to get them expressed in the terms of statesmanship, and in securing their acceptance.



MR. ROOSEVELT GETS THE CHICAGO NEWS WITH EVIDENT DELIGHT.

From the Philadelphia *Inquirer*, June 19.

Roosevelt and the Third Term.

It was sheer nonsense, therefore, to regard the Chicago convention as dominated for his own purposes by the strong hand of a single man. Mr. Roosevelt's dominance has merely meant the intelligent and voluntary support of his leadership by countless thousands of men whose opinions and aims he has tried to represent rather than to dictate. He is by nature didactic, and he is a great preacher of social ethics and political progress, as well as a statesman and leader of decision and power. The self-control and the firm judgment that led him to reject a renomination and effectually to prevent it show a strength of character seldom equaled in the annals of political history. He is young, strong, without disheartenment, and with no sense of fatigue or of growing distaste for the great burdens of his office. The renomination would have been his inevitably if he had not made sure that it would go to some one else. Not only did he show great firmness and poise of character in this renunciation, but the convention itself showed a high quality of self-control that may justly be regarded by thoughtful men of all parties as another reassuring evidence of our American capacity for self-government. It was the belief of the convention that Mr. Roosevelt could carry every State that he carried in 1904, and probably several Southern States in addition. Every delegation on the floor of that convention had rea-

sons of greater or less strength for desiring an assured Republican success by sweeping majorities, rather than a good fighting chance without certainty of victory. Yet the convention resolutely took Mr. Roosevelt at his word, and proceeded to nominate Mr. Taft in a spirit of great good-will. There was no law or rule of any kind against nominating Mr. Roosevelt; and in the face of concrete conditions a mere custom or theory as to a third term seems to lose weight and substance. Philosophical and broad-minded observers like Ambassadors Bryce and Jusserand, sitting on the platform through the convention and watching its proceedings carefully, were deeply impressed with the strength it showed in holding itself steadfastly to its program and in refusing to yield to its latent impulses. Mr. Roosevelt never stood out so splendidly before the world as in the moment of Mr. Taft's nomination, for he had secured a wise and suitable result by methods of appeal to public opinion followed by shrewd and skillful, but absolutely honorable, methods in the great American game of politics.

Business Issues in the Platform.

The platform deals rather scantily and feebly with the recent panic and the business depression that has followed it, and is more amusing than convincing when, as if making faces at its enemy, it actually boasts of "the recent safe passage of the American people through a financial disturbance," with respect to which it goes on to say that "if appearing in the midst of Democratic rule, or the menace of it, might have equaled the familiar Democratic panics of the past." The Democratic platform will, of course, show that Republican rule does not insure the country against financial panics and industrial depressions, and will find in the present business situation much reason for arraigning the party in power. The mere fact is that hard times foster political discontent and to that extent usually benefit the party out of power. The practical question for business men and for working men who want steady employment is easily stated. Would the election of Bryan do more to restore confidence and get the factories running at full time than the election of Taft? We have come through the sharp phases of the currency stringency and the financial panic. The banks have more money in hand than



Copytight, 1906, by Clinedinst.

SENATOR HOPKINS, OF ILLINOIS.

(Chairman of the Resolutions Committee.)



THERE IS NO DISGRACE IN WEARING THE "T. R." TAG.

From the *Herald* (Washington).



From the Chicago *American*.

SOME OF THE FAMILIAR FACES OF THE CHICAGO CONVENTION.

From Left to Right: Mr. George A. Knight, California; Senator Chauncey Depew, New York; Senator Samuel H. Piles, Washington; Mr. John Hays Hammond, Massachusetts; Senator James A. Hemenway, Indiana; Mr. Henry Taft, New York, and State Senator Hawkins, of Minnesota.

ever before, and the country awaits the settlement of political uncertainties and the maturing of the crops, and the gradual restoration of manufacturing and transportation business.

Commitments on Railrouds and Trusts.

The Republican platform ought to have handled the whole subject more fully and frankly. Meanwhile, as respects future action, the platform approves the recent emergency currency law and promises a fully developed currency system in due time. As respects the Sherman Anti-Trust law, amendments are promised to give greater federal control and greater publicity in the case of interstate commerce corporations of the monopoly sort. An amendment is demanded to the Interstate Commerce law so as to give railways the right to make and publish traffic agreements, while maintaining natural competition between competing lines. National legislation and supervision to prevent future overissue of stocks and bonds by railroads is also advocated. Upon these questions the platform fairly and specifically supports the Roosevelt policies. It is not cryptic or equivocal.

The Tariff Next March

The tariff plank is not radical, but is fairly explicit. It pledges the Republican party, if continued in power, to revise the tariff in a special session of Congress immediately following the inauguration of Mr. Taft next March. It declares for the establishment of maximum and minimum rates, the minimum to represent the measure of normal protection at home, and the maximum to be applied in case of discriminations against our trade. The plank is as clearly and strongly for a protective policy as any in former Republican platforms. The only significant thing in the plank is its declaration for a general tariff-overhauling next spring. What kind of a revision will result must be taken on faith. The question is one that voters may put to their Congressional candidates with all possible insistence.

Workers, Especially Farmers.

Two or three planks in the platform endeavor to prove that the Republican party is generous in its attitude toward wage-earners, and that it appreciates the need of creating social and political conditions favorable to the welfare of the ordinary man. It is not necessary here to sum up these planks. As regards the claims to the favorable attention of the farmers, however, the Republican party unquestionably has a strong case. The agricultural and postal departments, not to mention other branches of the Government, have led in a stupendous work for the revival and enrichment of life in the farming communities of the country.

Negroes in this Year's Campaign

The plank declaring for the "enforcement in letter and spirit of the XIII., XIV., and XV. amendments of the Constitution, which were designed for the protection and advancement of the negro," is to be taken for whatever it may be regarded as worth. For a great many years the Republican party has been threatening in its platform to cut down Southern representation in Congress, on account of the practical disfranchisement of the negroes. But these platform threats have been empty and idle. The party in power has not made the smallest serious attempt to change the basis of representation in this country from that of the total population to

that of the number of legal voters under the State laws. Since the party seems to mean most of the things that it says in its platform, it is regrettable that it should be so insincere in its treatment of the negro question. The negroes in the Southern States will never come into the exercise of political privilege through the action of either party at Washington. Their only chance will be so to identify themselves with the best interests of the communities where they live that they may gradually come into the actual enjoyment of the rights which they now theoretically possess under the laws and constitutions of all the Southern States. Those States do not now by law exclude from the franchise any negro who is fit to exercise it in view of conditions existing in the South. The shutting out of illiterates from the franchise in the South is a very proper thing. Unfortunately, the laws are not fairly enforced in the Southern States; but these are matters of local administration for which no national remedy can be found or applied. To cut down Southern representation in Congress would not help the negroes a particle.



Photograph by Baker, Columbus.

HON. THEODORE E. BURTON, OF OHIO.
(Who nominated Mr. Taft in a fine speech.)

The South and the Parties.

There is no longer any sound reason why Southern white men should feel that they have to vote the Democratic ticket, nor is there any corresponding reason why the negroes should be claimed as a Republican asset. Since, however, the negro voters have been accustomed to support the Republican ticket, it would be ridiculous for them to go over to the Democratic party on an accidental point that affects their sense of race clannishness, rather than upon some question of real public merit. The Democrats strongly supported the action of the Administration in disbanding the troops that were regarded as implicated in the Brownsville disorder. Educated negroes ought to see that they were the victims rather than the beneficiaries of the game of politics played by those who fought the President on that point of army discipline. Negroes should vote as citizens rather than as members of a race. The Southern white men should feel as free to vote for Mr. Taft as if they were living in New York or Indiana. A vast number of Southern business men approve of Mr. Taft and of the Taft-Roosevelt line of policies. It will be a good thing for everybody when more Southern white men of position join the Republican party and when more negroes become Democrats.

Representation in the Conventions.

A great step toward the improvement of party conditions in the South will come with a change in the basis of representation in the national Republican conventions. Practical all of the contests at Chicago were from Southern States which will cast comparatively few votes for Taft in the election. It is demoralizing to have the balance of power in a Republican convention held by delegates from States where for practical purposes the Republican party does not exist. The struggle for the control of those delegations is always an unseemly one, and it has sometimes involved disgraceful and scandalous methods. It was hoped that last month's convention would declare for such a change as would make the next convention representative of actual Republican voting masses in the States. The plan proposed was one delegate for every 10,000 voters in the preceding national election, every State, as now, being allowed its equal quota of delegates-at-large. The Taft managers, however, who had succeeded in controlling the Southern delegations, were unwilling to accept this seeming reflection upon the quality of their victory. The justification of the Taft management lay in the fact that if they had not been energetic in organizing the Southern delegations for their candidate, those delegations

would all have been organized against their candidate by methods far less regular and scrupulous than their own. Both sides at Chicago ought to have agreed to avoid future situations of this kind. The refusal of the Taft managers to change the basis of representation for 1912 was a mistake. From the standpoint of tactics, however, it should be explained that these questions came up on the day previous to the business of nominating candidates, and it was regarded as unwise, if not unsafe, to run the risk of alienating the Southern delegations in advance of the delivery of their promised votes for Mr. Taft.

Some Other Planks.

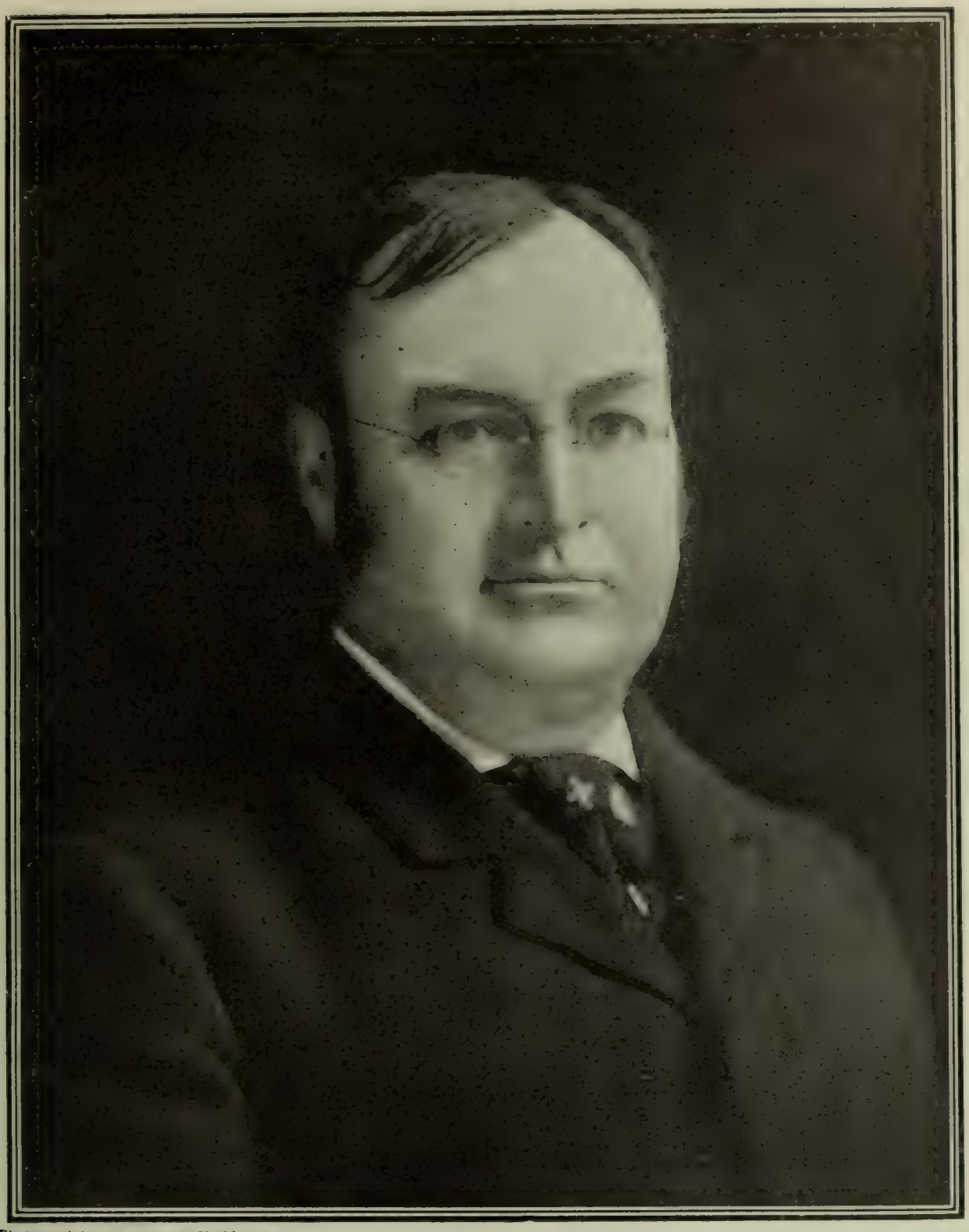
The platform contains a three-line endorsement of a postal savings-bank system, which is better than nothing, although more ought to have been said, and parcels post ought to have been included. There is a vague six-line plank of adherence "to the Republican doctrine of encouragement of American shipping." The platform favors "the immediate admission of the Territories of New Mexico and Arizona as separate States in the Union," and there is a just and appreciative review of the work of the Administration along the line of arbitration and Hague treaties, and its progress in the affairs of Cuba, Porto Rico, the Philippines, and Panama. As respects the Philippines, it should be said that the platform is for free trade between the United States and those islands, "with such limitations as to sugar and tobacco as will afford adequate protection to domestic interests." This policy of care for the progress of Philippine trade and industry is a matter with which Mr. Taft is especially identified.

Wisconsin in Evidence.

The platform was accepted as finally worked over in the Resolutions Committee by everybody excepting the Wisconsin delegation. That body had come to the convention to present the candidacy of Senator La Follette and had prepared in advance a strong platform, ably written, going into much greater detail as respects railroad regulation, trusts, and some other economic and political questions than the platform favored by the majority. This platform was brought before the convention as a minority report by Congressman Cooper, of Wisconsin, and several of its proposals were made the subject of separate roll calls in the convention. One of the demands thus voted on was that of publicity for campaign contributions; another was that calling for a physical valuation of railroad properties as a basis for the fixing of just rates, and another was that for the direct election of United States Senators. A good many delegates from other States than Wisconsin recorded their votes for one or another of these propositions, but it was evident that in so large a convention it was necessary to accept the results of the work of the Resolutions Committee as a whole; and thus the rejection of the Wisconsin planks did not necessarily express the opinions of the convention upon the merits of the things proposed. Wisconsin was strongly represented in the convention, and the speeches made in presenting the name of Mr. La Follette for President were among the best of all those the convention heard. It is not to be assumed that Wisconsin's standards are any more lofty than those of a number of other States, and the strenuous and uncompromising position of the La Follette people was merely a matter of careful prearrangement. Mr. La Follette and his supporters were summarily refused their seats in the convention of 1904 by the Credentials Committee, and they were naturally determined to be prominent and insistent in the convention of 1908. Mr. Bryan's criticism of the Chicago convention for rejecting the Wisconsin planks is fair enough from the standpoint of a political opponent, but is not justified from the standpoint of an impartial observer.

Looking for the "Running Mate."

There was much casting about to reach an agreement upon the nomination for the second place on the ticket. Governor Hughes, of New York, had lifted himself out of the contest by absolutely refusing not only to take the nomination but to take the office if nominated and elected. Massachusetts offered a candidate in the person of her Governor, Mr. Curtis Guild, and New Jersey had agreed upon ex-Governor Franklin Murphy. There was constant and persistent talk of the renomination of Vice-President Fairbanks, but at the last moment he sent a letter absolutely refusing to be considered. The favor of Mr. Taft and his managers was thought to have settled upon Senator Dolliver, of Iowa, but Mr. Dolliver's friends in that State, for local reasons, bitterly opposed the idea. They were afraid that if Mr. Dolliver left the Senate Governor Cummins might secure his vacant place. They are such good people in Iowa that their political strifes run into the same sort of extreme personal feeling that one finds



Photograph by C. M. Bell, Washington.

HON. JAMES SCHOOLCRAFT SHERMAN, OF NEW YORK, REPUBLICAN NOMINEE FOR THE VICE-PRESIDENCY.

among deacons and pious women in a church quarrel. Everybody knows that there is nothing so bitter and hateful as a disagreement among good people. Governor Cummins, Mr. Dolliver, Mr. Perkins, and many others who might be named, are all able and excellent public men who would make good Senators and good Vice-Presidents. At the last moment, the Iowa people all agreed that they were willing to give Governor Cummins to the nation as a Vice-Presidential candidate, and certainly he would have made a very brilliant and valuable running mate for Mr. Taft. But the Iowa reconciliation came too late for practical effect.

Sherman Agreed Upon.

It had been generally admitted that New York could have the place if only the discordant New York delegation could agree upon a candidate

who would help to carry the Empire State. Such an agreement was reached at the last moment, the candidate brought forward being the Hon. James S. Sherman, for a long time member of Congress from the Utica district. New York's choice was readily accepted by the great Pennsylvania delegation, and when Illinois and Ohio were equally favorable to it, the convention as a whole was ready to fall into line. Speaker Cannon put in a sudden and unexpected appearance and in a ringing speech seconded the nomination of Mr. Sherman. Mr. Sherman received 816 votes on the first ballot. He is in his fifty-third year; graduated from Hamilton College, New York, in 1878; was admitted to the bar in 1880, and for nearly thirty years has been active in the practice of his profession, in New York and Congressional politics, and in the business affairs of the city of Utica. In 1884 he was Mayor of that city, and in 1886 he was elected to Congress, and has served continuously at Washington, with the exception of one term.

Qualities as a Public Man.

He has been a useful and prominent member of the House of Representatives, having grown to the chairmanship on Indian Affairs, where his work is much commended by those who are best entitled to judge of it, and more recently he has been promoted to the chairmanship of the Committee on Railways and Canals. Of late, he has stood next to Speaker Cannon as chairman of the powerful Committee on Rules, which practically controls the business of the House. He is highly experienced in his knowledge not only of legislative affairs but in his grasp of parliamentary methods, and if elected would be an ideal presiding officer of the United States Senate. He is a man of excellent standing in the community where he lives, has maintained cordial relations with Mr. Roosevelt and the Administration, while not antagonizing the conservatives of Congress, and fits as perfectly as possible all the requirements of a compromise candidate for the Vice-Presidency.

The Chief Figures This Month.

The Denver convention opens on Tuesday, July 7, Mr. Bryan's nomination being a foregone conclusion. It is very likely that the second place may be given to an Eastern man. For that place Mayor McClellan, of New York City, and Lieutenant-Governor Chanler, of the State of New York, have been favorably mentioned. The campaign will begin promptly and the pace will not slacken until election day in November. Mr. Bryan will doubtless be head manager of his own canvass, and that of Mr. Taft will have President Roosevelt's wisdom and judgment behind it. The chairman of the Republican campaign committee is yet to be selected. At Chicago it was generally expected that Mr. Frank H. Hitchcock would be chosen, but various others were proposed, and a few days were taken for rest and mature advice. President Roosevelt, as soon as Mr. Taft's nomination was known, accepted his resignation as Secretary of War, to take effect on June 30. His successor will be Gen. Luke E. Wright, of Tennessee, who was associated with Mr. Taft on the Philippine Commission, and became his successor as Governor-General of the Philippines when Mr. Taft succeeded Mr. Root as Secretary of War. General Wright, who has always been a Southern Democrat, was one of the foremost lawyers of his State and of the entire South when he accepted Mr. McKinley's invitation to aid in the management of the Philippines. He has been in close official relationship with President Roosevelt, Mr. Root, and Mr. Taft, and his appointment as Secretary of War and a member of the Roosevelt cabinet deserves the high approval which it has everywhere received. Mr. Roosevelt went to Oyster Bay on June 20, and will remain there during the summer, as has been his custom. Mr. Taft will have a vacation at the Hot Springs, Va., but otherwise will make his headquarters at Cincinnati, and will receive visitors at the old Taft homestead, now occupied by his brother, Mr. Charles P. Taft.

The Smaller Parties.

Politicians have been curious to know what Mr. Hearst's Independence League is going to do. It will hold its convention late in the present month of July, and we are informed that it will refuse to support Bryan and will launch an independent ticket. The Socialists have duly nominated Mr. Debs as the candidate of their party, and the Populists have placed Mr. Tom Watson, of Georgia, in the field. The Prohibitionists are preparing to hold their convention at Columbus, Ohio, on the 15th of the present month, and thus there will be four parties in the field beside the two principal ones, each of which may be expected to poll a considerable number of votes.



THE TAFT HOMESTEAD IN CINCINNATI, NOW THE HOME OF CHARLES P. TAFT, WHERE THE NOMINEE WILL RECEIVE VISITING DELEGATIONS.

What Congress Has Done.

In spite of the fact that, owing to the autocratic system under which Congress has been ruled during the past session, a large and complete program was not carried through and much of the legislation of which the country is really in need was "held up," the first session of the Sixtieth Congress, which adjourned on May 30, accomplished a great many useful and meritorious things. Nearly 30,000 bills were introduced,—a record number. Of this number three-quarters were introduced in the House. The session was one of large appropriations, the total exceeding a billion dollars. On another page this month (67) Mr. Ernest G. Walker gives an analysis of our Government expenditures, outlining the way in which our national budget is prepared. We commend our readers' thoughtful attention to this article. Undoubtedly the most important single piece of legislation passed by the session which adjourned on Memorial Day was the Emergency Currency bill, a compromise between the Aldrich bill of the Senate and the Vreeland bill of the House. This measure was accepted by the House on May 27 and at once signed by the President. Its passage in the Senate was marked by an eighteen-and-one-half-hour speech by Senator La Follette, of Wisconsin, who attempted in this way, with the aid of Senator Stone, of Missouri, and Senator Gore, of Oklahoma, to prevent its enactment into law. The measure, which is a very long one, provides for the formation of incorporated national currency associations, comprising not less than ten banks each, such associations to have power in periods of financial stringency to issue emergency currency to the amount of $500,000,000, depositing as security therefor bonds, commercial paper, or other assets. This currency is so taxed as to insure its retirement when the stringency period has passed. The act also creates a national monetary commission of nine Senators and nine Representatives, to inquire and report "what changes are necessary or desirable in the monetary system of the United States or in the laws relating to banking and currency." The commission as appointed consists of Messrs. Aldrich, Allison, Burrows, Hale, Knox, Daniel, Teller, Money, and Bailey, from the Senate, and Messrs. Vreeland, Overstreet, Burton, Weeks, Bonynge, Smith, Padgett, Burgess, and Pujo, from the House of Representatives.

Important Laws Enacted.

During its six months of life Congress also modified the customs law; converted the militia into an integral part of the national military establishment; authorized many new public buildings; provided for the construction of two new battleships at a cost of $6,000,000 each; thoroughly reorganized the consular

service; passed a model Child-Labor law for the District of Columbia; enacted a new Employers' Liability law to replace the one pronounced unconstitutional by the Supreme Court; made some useful changes in the number and salary of enlisted men in the army and navy; appointed a commission and appropriated $1,500,000 to represent the United States at the Tokio Exposition in 1912; appropriated $29,227,000 for the Panama Canal; remitted $10,800,000 of the Chinese indemnity resulting from the Boxer uprising; directed that intoxicants and anarchistic and seditious publications be excluded from the mails; besides passing a number of laws affecting public lands. Among the important matters left for the next session, either in the form of unpassed bills or as subjects for discussion in committees, are: Relations with Venezuela (with Senate Committee on Foreign Relations); the resolutions in the Brownsville affair; changes in administrative customs laws in accordance with our agreement with Germany; a postal savings-bank bill (left on the Senate calendar); anti-injunction legislation (also left in the House Judiciary Committee); campaign publicity legislation (in the Senate committee); and amendments to the Interstate Commerce law and the Naturalization law.

The Senate and the Treaties.

During the session the Senate ratified eleven conventions proposed by the Hague Peace Conference and the following other international agreements: providing for the establishment of an international health office; pan-American copyright and code of international law; twelve arbitration conventions (with Denmark, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Holland, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, and Switzerland); conventions with Great Britain as to Canadian boundary and Canadian fisheries; extradition with Spain, San Marino, Portugal, and Uruguay; with Japan protection of trademarks in China and Korea; and naturalization with Peru, Portugal, and Salvador. Three Hague conventions (those providing for the creation of an international prize court, affecting the status of merchant ships at the outbreak of war, and the conversion of merchant ships into warships), as well as the proposed international wireless telegraph convention, were considered but not ratified. During the session the President sent to Congress twenty messages, nine of them transmitting reports of federal officers in response to resolutions and requests, eleven of them being special messages recommending general or particular legislation.

The Oregon Election.

The Oregon election of June 1 was a preliminary skirmish in the battle for the control of the next Congress, and incidentally showed that the people are strong supporters of the policies of President Roosevelt. Representatives Hawley and Ellis were re-elected by majorities of approximately 20,000 each, indicating a probable majority of 40,000 for the Republican national ticket in November. The most surprising result of the whole campaign was the selection of Gov. George E. Chamberlain, Democrat, over Mr. H. M. Cake, Republican, by a majority of nearly 2000 as the "people's choice" for United States Senator. His election by the Legislature next January is assured by the return of a fair majority of Republican and Democratic members pledged to "Statement No. 1" of the Direct Primary law, by which they agree to vote for the "people's choice" for United States Senator without regard to personal preference. We shall then witness the unique spectacle of a Legislature five-sixths of whom are Republicans confirming the vote of the people for Senator, much as do the Electors in the choice of a President. Governor Chamberlain, now serving his second term, is widely known, is personally very popular, and has declared himself strongly favorable to the main Rooseveltian policies.

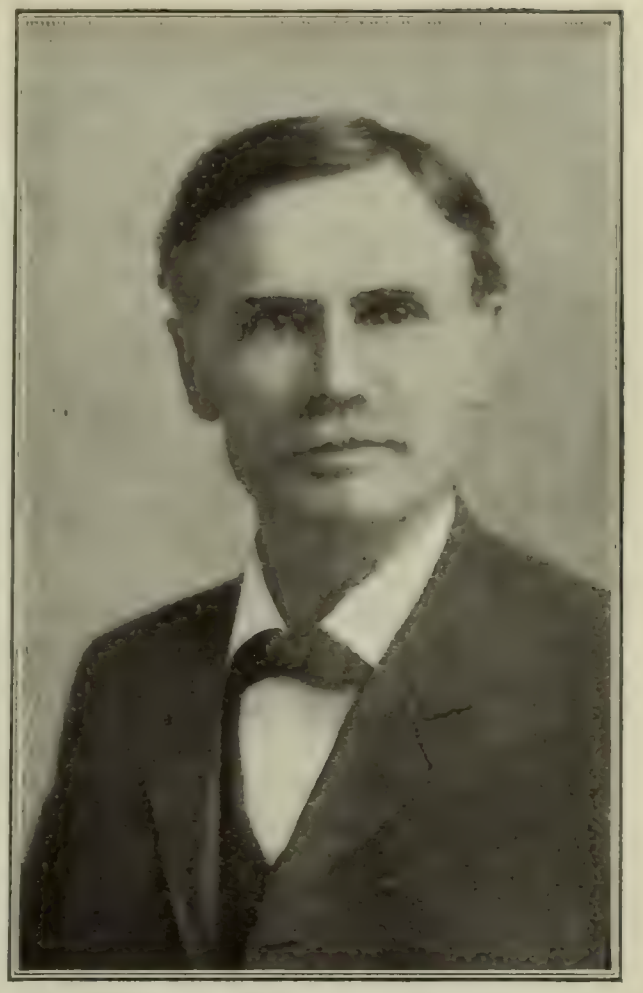
Direct Legislation.

This Oregon election has again directed attention to the struggle for direct legislation begun some ten years ago by a group of reformers headed by the Hon. W. S. U'Ren, a thoughtful, determined man, devoted to the principles of the initiative and the referendum. The factional strife and demoralized condition of politics at the time favored his plans. By 1902 the initiative and referendum had passed two legislatures and been almost unanimously adopted by the people. Two years later the Direct Primary law and the Local Option law were passed under the initiative. In the campaign of 1906 Mr. Jonathan Bourne made his fight for United States Senator almost wholly on the basis of support of "Statement No. 1." He won the Republican nomination at the primaries, received the popular vote in the election, and was elected immediately after the Legislature

convened by an almost unanimous vote of the representatives of both parties. Governor Chamberlain will be elected Senator similarly, practically by direct vote of the people.

Initiative and Referendum.

The Local Option law has produced the most far-reaching results. In 1906 eight counties went "dry." At the election June 1 these counties increased their majorities, and thirteen more counties voted out the saloons, thus excluding them from more than two-thirds of the State. The majorities in the remaining counties against prohibition were small, and in all of them some precincts went "dry," including several precincts in the city of Portland. Eleven measures were brought before the electors in 1906 under the initiative and referendum. Several of these were vicious and were decisively voted down; most of them were commendable and received equally hearty support. One of them extended the initiative and referendum to local, special, and municipal laws, and is already being used by several of the cities of the State. In the last campaign the number of initiative and referendum measures had swelled to nineteen. The Secretary of State sent to every registered voter a pamphlet of 126 pages containing the various proposed laws, together with the arguments for and against. Four of these were constitutional amendments referred to the people by the Legislature; four were legislative measures upon which the referendum had been ordered by petition of the people; the remaining eleven were laws or constitutional amendments proposed by initiative petition of the people. A great responsibility was placed upon the voters, but they met it conscientiously and intelligently, rejecting undesirable measures and supporting those they deemed best for the State. The "Open Town" bill, so-called, designed to nullify the Local Option law, failed, as did woman suffrage and a law based upon the "single tax," which had been vigorously discussed. Direct legislation was greatly extended by the adoption of two-to-one majorities of the recall of public officers, proportional representation, a corrupt practices act, and the instruction of members of the Legislature to vote for the people's choice for United States Senator,—four laws proposed by the Hon. W. S. U'Ren, representing the People's Power League of Oregon. In addition to these, two laws restricting salmon fishing on the Columbia River and one changing the date of election from June to November received majorities.



HON. W. S. U'REN, OF OREGON.

Primaries North and South.

Important primary elections were held last month in the Democratic States of Georgia and Florida and the Republican States of Iowa and South Dakota. In Georgia the chief contest was for the renomination of Gov. Hoke Smith. Governor Smith has had an eventful term of office, having signed the Prohibition law of 1907 and taken an active part in co-operation with the governors of Alabama and North Carolina in the attempt to enforce rigorous anti-railroad legislation in the South. Curiously enough, Governor Smith's activity in reforming the Democratic primary system had cost him the antagonism of the Populistic element in his State, which is headed by the indefatigable Tom Watson. His opponent in the contest for the governorship was the Hon. Joseph Brown, whom Governor Smith had removed from the office of Railroad Commissioner, presumably because he did not agree with the Governor's railroad policies. In the Democratic pri-

maries,—which in Georgia, of course, are equivalent to a State election,—Mr. Brown was victorious. This result has been attributed both to a reaction in the party against the Prohibition law and to a change of feeling on the subject of railroad regulation. However this may be, it is a noticeable fact that Mr. Brown succeeded in carrying the cities of Georgia, while his opponent was compelled to rely mainly upon the country vote.

Three Senate Seats.

The prohibition issue also figured in the Florida Democratic primaries, held on June 16, when candidates for United States Senator, Governor, and Railroad Commissioner were chosen. Governor Broward was defeated for the senatorship by Duncan U. Fletcher, of Jacksonville. Albert W. Gilchrist, who was the "local option" candidate, won the nomination for the governorship. In the Iowa Republican primaries, held on June 2, the venerable Senator Allison was successful in securing a renomination. Mr. Allison has served nearly forty-four years in Congress, thirty-six years of that time continuously in the Senate. Mr. B. F. Carroll was nominated for Governor. The Republicans of South Dakota, in their primary election, held one week later, nominated the present Governor of the State, the Hon. Coe I. Crawford, for United States Senator to succeed Senator Kittredge. Governor Crawford represents the so-called progressives in the Republican party, and the candidates of that wing of the party for Governor and other State officers were successful in the primary.

North Carolina Goes "Dry."

Another important victory for the cause of State prohibition of the liquor traffic was scored in North Carolina on May 26. On the question of ratifying the bill recently passed by the Legislature forbidding the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors in the State seventy-eight out of the ninety-eight counties voted for prohibition by majorities aggregating more than 40,000, the total vote cast in the State being about 175,000. Every large town in the State except Wilmington and Durham voted for prohibition. One feature of the temperance campaign was the active part taken by some of the State's most eminent citizens in appealing to the voters from the stump. Governor Glenn, United States Senator Simmons, and United States Circuit Judge Jeter C. Pritchard made prohibition speeches throughout the State. It should be remembered that a large proportion of North Carolina counties had for years been "dry" under local option. The State's final decision to adopt the prohibitory policy was reached after many years of experience with this policy in different communities. In this connection it is interesting to note that while the Louisiana Legislature now in session has refused to submit the question of prohibition to the voters of the State, it has passed a rigid bill for the regulation of liquor-selling, which doubles the amount of liquor license required, forbids brewers or wholesale liquor-dealers to have any interest in any bar, and prohibits music, pictures, or games of any kind in a saloon. Thirty out of fifty-nine parishes in Louisiana are already "dry."

Race-Track Gambling.

Last month the New York Legislature reluctantly yielded to the persistent urging of Governor Hughes and the demands of public sentiment and enacted the Anti-Race-Track Gambling bills. Soon after the bills failed of passage in the State Senate by a tie vote in April last, it was pointed out in these pages that the people of New York had pronounced against all forms of gambling, including race-track betting, by the vote for the adoption of the State constitution in 1894. The Legislature, instead of carrying out that mandate in good faith, had practically nullified it, so far as betting at race-tracks was concerned, by failing to provide uniform and adequate penalties. Governor Hughes demanded that all discrimination should be abolished and that the plain purpose of the constitution should be fulfilled by the statutes. The Legislature, having failed at its regular session to pass the necessary bills, was recalled in special session, as related in our last number. A vacancy in one of the Senate districts having been filled by the election of a Senator favorable to the bills, their passage still seemed doubtful because of the continued illness of Senator Foelker, who represented one of the Brooklyn districts.

The New York Special Session.

The bills had passed the Assembly by large majorities, but their fate in the Senate was determined only by the appearance of Senator Foelker, still a desperately sick man, acting against his physician's orders, and his vote in their favor. The

father commonplace and frequently sordid routine of State legislation was enlivened for once with a truly dramatic touch. Not for many years, if ever, has the incident had a parallel. It is not often that a legislator is called on to face death in the performance of duty, but the generous words that found utterance everywhere in recognition of this courageous act showed that the American public is as quick to award praise for such a deed of disinterested public service as it is to heap censure on the heads of those faithless legislators who betray a public trust. The adjournment of the New York Legislature on June 11 left unaccomplished a number of important reforms which Governor Hughes had hoped to have embodied in law,—notably the bill for direct nominations and the extension of the Public Service law to telephone and telegraph companies.

Signs of Financial Recovery.

Industrial and financial circles in America have been anxiously awaiting a sign of business activity. Is prosperity to return this autumn, when political uncertainties are cleared away? Or are we in for a period of decreasing prices, contraction and timidity on the part of manufacturers and investors comparable to the four years following the panic of 1893? The past month has brought such a sign in a very sudden advance of prices on the Stock Exchange, where the leading railway and industrial stocks within a few weeks recovered three-eighths of their long drop down from their high marks of January, 1906, to the panic prices of November, 1907. This phenomenon has been interpreted on the one hand as Wall Street's prophecy of a resumption of business activity within the next six months, and it is true that Wall Street, with all its inconsistencies and absurdities of temperament, has a sensitiveness to future conditions which is almost miraculous to the layman. The recovery in the prices of securities has, on the other hand, been ascribed by well-informed people to a masterly manipulation of the markets by powerful interests in control of our great railway systems, with the purpose of inducing that hope and buoyancy which would allow them to market various necessary issues of new railway bonds. Be that as it may, the buoyancy certainly appeared, and the bonds, too, and they have been marketed with a celerity and success which seem marvelous to any one who can remember the financial atmosphere of only six months back. The more hopeful feeling was greatly strengthened by the tremendous oversubscription to the $50,000,000 of bonds offered by the Pennsylvania Railroad and the successful flotation of $50,000,000 of 4 per cent. bonds by the Union Pacific.

Education of Investors.

It is common talk among the great investment houses of New York and Chicago that their clients, even those with a few thousand dollars, are concerning themselves with the value back of the securities they propose to purchase to a degree not seen before. There were several issues of notes and bonds offered last month of a less desirable nature than the first-mortgage liens of such railroads as the Pennsylvania, Union Pacific, and Burlington, and the inferior offerings were not only made attractive by higher rates of interest, but were also very adequately protected by additional securities before they were accepted by the public. It is generally assumed that this intelligent interest shown by the individual investor is more than the extreme caution which logically comes in the year after the panic; the excellent work done by investment bankers in informing their clients and the establishment of educational departments in the investment field by several widely read periodicals have probably aided materially in starting Americans who have saved money to a display of shrewdness and care in investing it somewhat analogous to the qualities required to save it.

Crops May Be Excellent.

Apart from the proof given by these sales of securities that the great transportation systems can now obtain the money they need, when unquestionable securities are offered in return for the money, it cannot be said that there are many specific indications of returning prosperity except the promise of at least average crops. The June estimates by the Department of Agriculture as compared with last year and 1906 are as follows for the condition of wheat, oats, and cotton:

	1908.	1907.	1906.
Winter wheat	86	77.4	82.7
Spring wheat	95	88.7	93.4
Oats	92.9	81.6	85.9
Cotton	79.7	(82.3 is the 10-year average.)	

It will be seen that unless there is a radical deterioration after June, we shall have excellent crops in 1908, some statisticians figuring their total value, including all agricultural products, as high as $8,000,000,000..



HON. JOHN HENNIKER HEATON, M.P.
(The Englishman who has devoted almost a lifetime to the advocacy of cheap postage rates.)

Cheaper Ocean Postage This Year.

Ocean penny postage has at last become an established fact. It was announced in London and Washington simultaneously on June 3 by Postmaster-General Buxton and Postmaster-General Meyer that an agreement had been reached between the United States and Great Britain establishing a two-cent per ounce postal rate on letters between the two countries, to take effect on October 1 next. In October of last year, it will be remembered, the Universal Postal Union adopted the international postal rate of 5 cents for the first ounce and 3 cents for each additional ounce, declaring that any two states might thereafter form a restricted union adopting a still lower rate. The two-cent rate soon to be effective between England and this country has existed for more than a quarter of a century between the United States and Canada and for a less period between our own country and Mexico, Cuba, and the Republic of Panama, besides, of course, our insular dependencies.

Extension of the Parcels Post

While it is expected that for a year or two the change will cause a loss in the revenues of the two postoffices, both postmasters-general believe that the increase of correspondence caused by the reduction will ultimately more than compensate for the loss. Mr. Meyer also believes that the lower postage will lead to freer commercial intercourse. He is known to be in favor of still further extension of the usefulness of our Postoffice Department by the introduction of the parcels post with the rest of the world, and a postal savings-bank. A parcels-post convention was actually signed on the 15th of last month between the United States and Italy, to become effective August 1, and one with France, to become effective two weeks later. During the past three-quarters of a century great improvements have been made in the world's postal service. The names of Rowland Hill and John Henniker Heaton, M.P., of England, and those of Edward Everett and Elihu Burritt, of this country,—not by any means forgetting our present Postmaster-General,—will be remembered with lasting gratitude for what has been done in this direction. Mr. Heaton, known as "the father of imperial penny postage," has now turned his energies to a reduction of telegraph rates between England and the Continent and of cable rates between Europe and the United States. A two-cent-a-word tariff between the two continents, he contends, would very soon be a paying arrangement for the cable companies.

The Presidential Election in Panama.

As set forth in these pages last month, a fair and quiet election in Panama is assured by the agreement on the part of the Panama Government that the United States shall have the right to investigate, and possibly intervene, if there should prove to be any real ground for charges of fraud, intimidation, or irregularity when the election for President of the Isthmian Republic takes place on the twelfth day of the present month. The correspondence between the United States War Department and the Government of Panama since the beginning of May, relative to the holding of the coming election, was made public early in June. In a letter dated May 12 and delivered to President Amador in person, Secretary Taft said:

> Every fraudulent election involves force and violence in the election itself, which necessarily endangers the peace of the Canal Zone and is exceedingly likely to arouse in the party defeated by fraud and violence a disposition to resist the fraudulently elected officials and to institute a rebellion. The United States cannot look upon any election which is not conducted on fair lines, and is likely to lead to violence, with anything but the utmost concern, and it has a direct interest in case of threatened fraud in an election to interfere to prevent it, and in case the fraud is carried out to intervene to prevent the succession of those officials in

whose election there has not been the free choice of the people.

The Secretary of War's letter concluded with a quotation from a dispatch from President Roosevelt in these words:

> You are authorized to say to President Amador that the Government of the United States will consider that any attempt at the election of a successor by fraudulent methods or methods which deny to a large part of the people opportunity to vote constitutes a disturbance of public order, which under Panama's constitution requires intervention, and that this Government will not permit Panama to pass into the hands of any one so elected.

Possibility of American Intervention.

Into the merits of the dispute between the Arias and Obaldia factions it is unnecessary to go, further than to state that President Amador's administration has been so unpopular with the voters that, in the event of its vindication by doubtful methods at the polls in securing the election of Señor Arias, Amador's Secretary of State (whom he is backing for the succession), it seems likely that there would be a popular outbreak of revolutionary proportions. The return to the United States on June 1 of Mr. Squiers, American Minister at Panama, for conference with Secretary Taft at Washington, indicated that the situation was serious. Of course the tranquillity of the Canal Zone and the safety of the canal workers are the only objects of concern with the United States, and these fully justify the readiness of our War Department to land an adequate force of marines upon the isthmus at short notice in case of need.

Peaceful Central and South America.

While Venezuela still drifts toward anarchy under the erratic, half-civilized rule of President Castro, and her northern coasts are ravaged by the bubonic plague, reports of the quiet progress of peace and commerce from other South American countries emphasize the distinction which has come to be recognized as almost a permanent one between that turbulent Caribbean republic and the rest of the South American continent. Bolivia and Peru have just elected progressive statesmen as presidents. Dr. Guachalla, former Bolivian Minister in Washington, member of the Mexican Pan-American and Hague conferences, and a man of large commercial interests in the republic, has been elected President of Bolivia. In Peru, Señor Augusto B. Leguia, a highly successful man of affairs in mercantile life in his own country and in the United States, formerly representing a number of large foreign commercial interests, and at one time Minister of Finance, has been chosen President of Peru. The long-delayed Quito railroad also, connecting the capital of Ecuador with Guayaquil, its seaport, was completed last month. From Chile our Government has received an invitation to the Pan-American Scientific Congress to be held in the city of Santiago in that country in December next. President Roosevelt has appointed nine prominent American scientists and educators to represent the United States Government upon this occasion. Meanwhile, despite predictions of revolt and disorder in Cuba at the provincial and municipal elections to be held on September 1, and at the presidential election on December 1, the island continues quiet and in the enjoyment of an increasing social and business security. The progress and stability of the Central Americans will undoubtedly be greatly advanced by the establishment of the new Central American court of justice provided for in the recent treaty between the five republics and inaugurated on May 30 at Cartago, Costa Rica. The United States is represented on this court by Judge William I. Buchanan.

The Celebration in Quebec and the Elections.

It is not often that in the midst of a Presidential campaign in the United States there is any real deep American interest in our Canadian neighbor, whose political and economic affairs usually progress without any spectacular appeal to the American people. The celebration this month, however, of the three-hundredth anniversary of the founding by Champlain of Quebec, "the cradle of Canada," possesses a deep interest for the American people and a significance perhaps even beyond the conscious interest. On another page we print an article giving details of the celebration and pointing out the international significance of the occasion. It is especially noteworthy that this fraternizing of the English and French speaking peoples in the New World should have occurred when the chief magistrates of both England and France have been emphasizing the cordiality of the relations now existing between the two mother countries. The ceremonies in Quebec beginning July 20, over which the Prince of Wales will preside, are, says the London *Times*, "in no sense intended to exalt the triumph of one great nation over another." The occasion commemorates rather the triumph of these



KING EDWARD WELCOMING PRESIDENT FALLIÈRES TO ENGLAND.

(As seen by the artist of *Black and White*, London.)

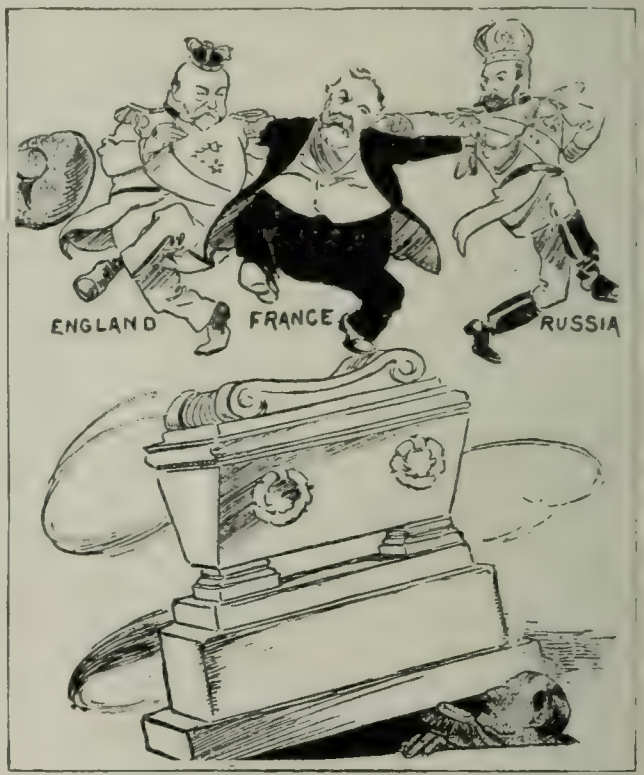
two great nations in harmoniously combining to create a new national type. On June 8 occurred the elections to the provincial legislatures of Ontario and Quebec, resulting in a radical change of political complexion. The Liberals triumphed in Quebec, but were beaten in Ontario. Hon. Lomer Gouin, Premier of Quebec, was beaten at the polls, as was also Hon. L. A. Taschereau, one of the provincial ministry. Although these gentlemen were afterward elected from "safe" constituencies (Canada following the British method in this respect), the government majority in Quebec has been cut down materially. In Ontario Hon. Nelson Monteith, Minister of Agriculture, was defeated in his own district, the government majority (Conservative), in the province, however, remaining a substantial one.

Is It Canada's Opportunity.

The splendid natural resources of the Dominion and the national opportunities of the Canadian people have been discussed and commented upon in many articles in these pages. It may be said that Americans have watched Canadian progress heretofore with a friendly when not indifferent eye. Now that the grain-carrying trade of New York is actually suffering from the competition of Montreal, with the result that one great Atlantic steamship line (the White Star) has withdrawn five of its freighters from service at this port, and other lines have taken similar action, it remains to be seen whether an era of actual trade rivalry has not set in. Perhaps the natural advantages of nearness to grain-fields and their market are actually with the Canadian port. Possibly the truth of the Canadian boast of the past decade that if the nineteenth century belonged to the United States the twentieth is to be Canada's is about to be demonstrated to the world.

President Fallières in England.

The spectacle of a French President being enthusiastically welcomed on English soil by the English court and people, and the reception accorded in Russian waters to the English King and Queen by the Russian monarchs, who are bound by an alliance to the French Republic,—this is a combination of circumstances calculated to make the shade of the first Napoleon act in some such way as the cartoonist has fancied in the accompanying picture. President Fallières' visit to England during the last week in May was made ostensibly to express the official and popular French participation in the opening of the Franco-British Exposition in London. It was actually the dramatic climax to the series of courtesies and expressions of cordiality between the two nations since the estab-



THE SHADE OF NAPOLEON I. ON THE ANGLO-FRANCO-RUSSIAN UNDERSTANDING.

"Well, I'll be ——"

From the *Times* (New York).

lishment of the Anglo-French understanding,—the *entente cordiale*, as the French call it,—which, the press of both nations is insisting, now amounts to an unwritten alliance. This complete understanding between the two great western European nations, which for centuries were at the bitterest of enmity, has already exerted and is bound in the future to exert a powerful influence on general European politics in the direction of peace. Prof. Adolphe Cohn, who is an authority on French politics, tells on another page this month just how significant this understanding is for Europe and points out why Clément-Armand Fallières is an ideal President of the French Republic in this year 1908.

Will There Be an Anglo-French Alliance?

The chief magistrate of the French Republic was enthusiastically applauded wherever he went by the British populace, and everywhere made a deep impression by his genuine manly qualities and that simple, straightforward, democratic spirit which appeals so strongly to all the Anglo-Saxon peoples. No formal alliance appears on the program. But a long and significant conference, during which all questions affecting the policy of France and Great Britain were discussed, between M. Pichon, the French Foreign Minister, and M. Paul Cambon, the French Ambassador to Great Britain, and Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Minister, and Sir Charles Hardinge, British permanent Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, showed a complete agreement between the diplomats of the two nations. Meanwhile the undoubted and complete success, even in its first days, of the Franco-British fair in London, has emphasized the depth and genuineness of Anglo-French friendship.

France, Zola, Dreyfus, Morocco.

The French Republic made complete its restitution to Emile Zola for the injustice and wrongs he suffered because of his celebrated defense of Dreyfus by formally transferring, on June 4, the remains of the courageous novelist from the quiet cemetery at Montmartre to the Panthéon. This vindication of French honor and righteousness, which Zola had been one of the very few to honestly defend at the time of the Dreyfus infamy, was marred by a dastardly attack upon Dreyfus, who was present at the ceremonies. A journalist named Gregori, who has written a great deal defending the French army, drew a revolver and fired two shots at Dreyfus, slightly injuring him in the arm. Amid great excitement and fear lest President Fallières himself had been attacked the assailant was taken into custody and Major Dreyfus led off to a hospital. His wounds, however, were not serious. Gregori is presumed to be a tool of the Nationalist, Clerical, and Anti-Semite *bloc* which has united with all the enemies of the republic to revive if possible the famous case against Dreyfus. This case is recalled by another dramatic degradation of a French officer, this time proof of treason being apparently established. A naval officer by the name of Ullmo, having been found in possession of a number of valuable official documents which it is claimed he was about to sell to a foreign power, was publicly degraded at Toulon on June 12. It so happened that while this ceremony of degradation was being performed in Toulon, from the same port several thousand troops were dispatched to reinforce the French commanding general in Morocco. The republic's task in North Africa has not become easier by the victorious advance of Mulai Hafid. The usurping Sultan on June 7 took possession of Fez, one of the Moroccan capitals. He now almost evenly divides territory and authority with his brother, Abd-el-Aziz, and France's problem seems to be to choose between the two or play one against the other. The issue, late in May, of a White Book in Berlin, setting forth the German attitude on the Moroccan question, indicates that France's military operations in that country are henceforward to be regarded from Berlin with less distrust than formerly.

King Edward Visits the Czar.

Hardly had the French President sailed away from England in the republic's fine warship, the *Leon Gambetta,* when King Edward and Queen Alexandra, together with Secretary Hardinge and the British Ambassador to St. Petersburg, Sir Arthur Nicolson, boarded the royal yacht, the *Victoria and Albert,* and sailed for Russian waters, reaching Reval on June 9. There they were met by the Czar Nicholas and the Czarina on the imperial yacht, the *Polar Star.* A dramatic and impressive exchange of imperial courtesies and expressions of regard were followed by a state banquet and a prolonged conference between the two monarchs and their attendant diplomats, at which the Russian Premier Stolypin was present. While the subjects discussed at this conference have not been made public, the result, we are informed



COURT OF HONOR OF THE FRANCO-BRITISH EXHIBITION IN LONDON. THE NIGHT ILLUMINATION.

by the European press generally, is a complete and intimate Anglo-Russian understanding,—not so intimate as the *entente* between England and France, but sufficiently definite and cordial to relieve Great Britain from any fears over Russian designs on the Near East and to give great hope to the Russian Liberals that Nicholas II. is opening his heart and mind more and more to the progressive institutions of western Europe.

The Duma Holding Its Own.

When Czar Nicholas parted from his royal guests he is reported to have remarked sadly to King Edward: "You return now to your happy English home; I go back to my state prison." Very strange and unenviable is the position of this monarch, claiming absolute power and possessing less freedom than the head of any other civilized nation in the world. Even while avowedly granting his people a share in government the Czar refuses to abate one jot of his autocracy. While Nicholas and his immediate court continue to claim unlimited autocracy, however, it becomes evident as the months pass that the Duma, even discredited as it has been and continues to be in many classes of Russian society, is gradually assuming the character and proportions of a truly representative assembly. Very naturally, it regards its own functions too highly to become entirely subservient to the court party. Moreover, the parliament has already firmly intrenched itself in the position of holding the balance of power between the court and the administration, each of which now appeals to it for aid in contested questions.

Passing Upon Russian Finances.

Early last month the Duma, by the large majority of 194 to 78, rejected the item in the Premier's naval budget appropriating funds to build four new battleships. When it is remembered that Czar Nicholas himself, his Premier, and the entire court party were in favor of this measure the courage of the Duma members in rejecting it can be realized. So far, however, has constitutionalism actually progressed in Russia that the Premier acknowledged the Duma's vote as final. Later, Parliament emphasized its power and prerogatives in financial matters by passing (on June 17) a "vote of disapprobation" on

the issue last January by Finance Minister Kokovtsev, without legislative sanction, of an internal loan of $83,000,000. A long and somewhat bitter debate over the projected Amur Railroad took place in the Council of the Empire last month, Count Witte contending that Russia's finances would not stand the strain of such a project and Finance Minister Kokovtsev defending the bill. It is noteworthy as indicative of the really remarkable spirit of organized opposition to intemperance that the special Duma commission, which has had under consideration for several months the drink question in Russia, reported, early last month, in favor of replacing the imperial eagle on the labels of the vodka bottles [in Russia, it will be remembered, the state absolutely controls and conducts the liquor business] by the skull and cross-bones and also appropriate warnings against over-indulgence.

German Topics of Interest.

For the first time in the constitutional history of Prussia the Socialist party has won seats in the Diet. Six Socialist members, five of them from the Berlin district, were elected during the ballotings held last month. Gains were also made by Poles and the extreme Conservatives. The election of the Socialists and Poles is particularly significant in the face of the many obstacles which Prussia's extremely complicated electoral system puts before real universal suffrage. Other topics of news from Germany during the past month of particular interest to Americans were the cordial reception by the Kaiser of Ambassador David Jayne Hill, who succeeds Mr. Tower at Berlin, the last official dispatch of the retiring Ambassador containing the announcement that Germany is willing to enter into a treaty of arbitration with the United States, and the official declaration of the German Government of its attitude in the vexed question of Macedonian reform. This attitude, as set forth in the words of Baron Speck von Sternburg, German Ambassador at Washington, is presented and discussed on another page.

Two Famous Old Men in Europe.

This summer two famous old men of Europe have birthdays which will be widely celebrated, one by an entire continent, the other, it might be said, by the entire world. Count Leo Tolstoi will be eighty years old on September 10 (August 28, Russian calendar), and Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria-Hungary will attain on August 18 his seventy-eighth year. A Russian committee is arranging for an appropriate celebration of Tolstoi admirers all over the world. Just sixty years ago, after the abdication of his uncle, Ferdinand I., Francis Joseph was proclaimed Emperor of Austria. Hungary was not then a part of his domain. Indeed, it was in revolt against the Hapsburg rule and only kept down by Russian troops. It was not until June, 1867, that Francis Joseph, having taken the oath on the Hungarian constitution, was crowned King of Hungary. This REVIEW has upon several occasions,—notably three years ago, when the agitation for the renewal of the "Ausgleich" (the agreement regulating Austro-Hungarian relations) was being so animatedly discussed, and last November, when the aged Emperor was so ill that his life was despaired of,—printed sketches of this interesting monarch, surveying his reign and retelling the tragic story of his life.

Francis Joseph's Golden Jubilee.

The celebration of the sixtieth anniversary of his accession to the Austrian throne was made the occasion of a friendly visit by the German Emperor and eleven reigning German kings and princes. After this visit, which took place in May, the ceremonies of celebration began and continued for several weeks, concluding on June 12 with a monster parade and an elaborate pageant in Vienna, participated in by more than 100,000 persons, 20,000 of them in the national costumes of the diverse races in the empire. The family life of the aged Austrian Emperor has been darkened by more than one dreadful tragedy, and in the heterogeneous racial composition of his polyglot empire there is more than one nationality which looks upon him as oppressor. Despite this, however, and the fact that his family name has become a synonym for reaction, he has really granted more liberal reforms than his brother sovereign of German speech, Kaiser Wilhelm II. The Austrian Reichsrath is now chosen on a basis of almost universal suffrage, and the Hungarian Table of Deputies also will soon be chosen by this same modern method. On the whole, the Austro-Hungarian Empire as well as its aged ruler, is entitled to congratulation upon the long life of Francis Joseph I.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From May 21 to June 20, 1908.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

May 21.—The Senate adopts the resolution of Mr. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.) creating a monetary commission and passes the General Deficiency and Military Academy Appropriation bills.... The House passes bills providing for a national forest commission and a bureau of mines and mining in the Interior Department.

May 22.—The House passes a bill for the publicity of campaign contributions, with an amendment providing for a reduction of the representation in Congress of States having disfranchisement laws.

May 25.—The Senate adopts the conference report on the Sundry Civil Appropriation bill.

May 26.—The Senate passes a minor navigation bill....The House agrees to the Military Academy Appropriation bill.

May 27.—The House, by a vote of 166 to 140, adopts the report of the conferrees on the Currency bill.

May 28.—The Senate debates the Aldrich and Vreeland Currency bill.

May 29.—In the Senate, a filibuster conducted by Mr. La Follette (Rep., Wis.) prevents adoption of the conference report on the Currency bill.

May 30.—The Senate adopts the conference report on the Currency bill by a vote of 43 to 22....The House adopts conference reports on the Public Buildings bill and other measures. ....The first session of the Sixtieth Congress comes to an end.



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington

GEN. LUKE E. WRIGHT, OF TENNESSEE

(Appointed to succeed Mr. Taft as Secretary of War.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

May 21.—Governor Hughes signs a bill making it a felony to conduct a bucket-shop in the State of New York....The Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts sends an opinion to the House of Representatives that a tax on transfers of stocks is unconstitutional.

May 22.—A bill in equity to restrain the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad Company from exercising any control over the Boston & Maine is filed by the Federal Government in Boston.

May 23.—The Illinois Legislature adjourns, having been in session since January, 1907.... Governor Hughes vetoes the rapid transit law amendments for New York City and the Coney Island Five-Cent-Fare bill.

May 26.—North Carolina is carried for prohibition by a majority of over 40,000....Secretary Taft and William J. Bryan both declare for the enactment of a campaign-contribution publicity bill.

May 27.—Texas Democrats instruct for Bryan and endorse Bailey....New Hampshire Democrats refuse to instruct for Bryan, but elect Bryan delegates by a small majority.

May 28.—West Virginia and Arizona Democrats instruct for Bryan.

May 31.—The Currency Commission appointed by Vice-President Fairbanks and Speaker Cannon is organized at Washington with Senator Aldrich, of Rhode Island, as chairman and Representative Vreeland, of New York, as vice-chairman.

June 1.—In the Oregon elections Governor Chamberlain (Dem.) defeats Cake (Rep.) for United States Senator by a small plurality; Representatives Hawley (Rep.) and Ellis (Rep.) are re-elected; the Legislature is almost unanimously Republican; prohibition makes extensive gains in many of the counties; the propositions for woman suffrage and the single tax are defeated.

June 2.—In the Iowa Republican primaries William B. Allison is nominated for re-election to the United States Senate; B. F. Carroll is nominated for Governor....Arkansas and Nevada instruct for Bryan.

June 3.—Maryland Democrats choose delegates to Denver uninstructed.

June 4.—In the Georgia Democratic primaries Gov. Hoke Smith is defeated for renomination by Joseph M. Brown.

June 7.—Representative citizens of New York State send a memorial to the Republican National Committee asking that a plank upholding the judiciary be placed in the platform.

June 8.—President Roosevelt appoints a national commission of fifty-seven members on

the conservation of national resources....Governor Hughes sends to the New York Legislature a message recommending the enactment of laws for the prevention of race-track gambling.

June 9.—Oregon Democrats instruct for Bryan....In the Republican primaries of South Dakota Gov. Coe I. Crawford defeats United States Senator A. B. Kittredge for renomination.

June 10.—The New York Assembly passes the Anti-Race-Track Gambling bills.

June 11.—The New York State Senate, with the aid of the votes of Senators Foelker and Wallace, passes the Anti-Race-Track Gambling bills, which are almost immediately signed by Governor Hughes....The Massachusetts House defeats the Railroad Regulation bill designed to prevent the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad from controlling the Boston & Maine....Virginia and Kentucky Democrats instruct for Bryan.

June 12.—Utah Democrats instruct for Bryan....The Republican National Committee completes the hearing of contests at Chicago; 216 Taft delegates are seated and three Foraker delegates.

June 13.—Governor Willson, of Kentucky, announces the pardon of Caleb Powers and James Howard, alleged to be involved in the assassination of William Goebel in 1900.

June 15.—The Louisiana House of Representatives votes to postpone indefinitely consideration of a bill providing for a referendum on State-wide prohibition; it then passes a bill doubling the amount of liquor license and forbidding brewers or wholesale liquor-dealers to have any interest in any bar.

June 16.—The Republican National Convention meets in Chicago and Senator Burrows, as temporary chairman, delivers his speech....The federal suits against the "hard-coal" railroads to determine the constitutionality of the commodity clause of the Hepburn act begin in Philadelphia....Colorado Democrats instruct for Bryan.

June 17.—In the Republican National Convention at Chicago, during Senator Lodge's speech as permanent chairman, a demonstration in honor of President Roosevelt lasts forty-six minutes.

June 18.—The Republican National Convention at Chicago nominates Secretary Taft for President on the first ballot, giving him 702 votes; the nomination is made unanimous.... Congressman John Sharp Williams of Mississippi announces his resignation as minority leader in the House of Representatives.

June 19.—Congressman James S. Sherman, of New York, is nominated for the Vice-Presidency on the first ballot by the Republican National Convention at Chicago, receiving 816 votes; after making the nomination unanimous the convention adjourns....Secretary Taft tenders his resignation to the President, who appoints Gen. Luke E. Wright, of Tennessee, to succeed him as head of the War Department.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

May 21.—The French estimates are laid before the Chamber of Deputies....As a result of remarks made by Premier Stolypin in the Russian Duma, five members of the Finnish cabinet resign.



THE BRITISH AMBASSADOR, MR. BRYCE, AND HIS WIFE.

(From a snapshot taken at the Chicago convention.) From the Chicago *American*.

May 22.—The president and seventeen members of the first Russian Duma are thrown into prison in St. Petersburg....M. Caillaux speaks in the French Parliament in support of the Income-Tax bill.

May 23.—The Austro-Hungarian ministers resign office....Mr. Lloyd-George addresses a large meeting in Edinburgh in support of the Licensing bill....The German imperial supreme court at Leipsic sets aside the verdict convicting the Berlin editor Harden of libeling Count von Moltke and orders a retrial.

May 24.—The Belgian parliamentary elections result in a gain to the Socialists....Four revolutionists are sentenced to death in St. Petersburg.

May 25.—The French Chamber of Deputies adopts the section of the Income-Tax bill which places a duty on dividends from French and foreign government bonds.

May 26.—A Scotch home-rule bill is introduced in the British House of Commons by Mr. Pirie, member from North Aberdeen.

May 27.—Augusto B. Leguia is elected President of the Republic of Peru; Eugenio L. Unanue and Dr. Belisario Sosa are elected Vice-Presidents.

June 2.—The Russian Minister of Finance proposes an immediate issue of a loan of $100,000,000 at 5 per cent.

June 3.—Five Socialists are elected to the Prussian Diet.

June 6.—The trial of fifteen Social Revolutionists, including two women, begins in St. Petersburg.

June 8.—Liberals make gains in the parliamentary elections held in Quebec, but lose in Ontario.

June 9.—The Spanish Chamber of Deputies adopts the bill for a Spanish internal loan of $32,000,000.

June 13.—The French Senate and Chamber

of Deputies adopt the bill establishing the right of voters to a secret ballot....10,000 British women march for the cause of woman suffrage from Victoria Embankment to Albert Hall, London....The French Parliament postpones discussion of the bill to abolish the death penalty.

June 10.—The British House of Commons passes the second reading of the Old-Age Pension bill....All property controlled by the Korean imperial household is transferred to the state.

June 17.—The Russian Duma rebukes the Finance Minister for having induced the Czar to issue a ukase authorizing a loan without the Duma's consent.

June 20.—Unionists win the election for a division of West Riding, Yorkshire, England, by 113 votes.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

May 21.—Two conventions between the United States and Japan concerning copyright and inventions are signed at Washington.... Guatemala releases Bustillos, the special commissioner from Honduras, thus averting possible international complications.

May 23.—Ambassadors Buchanan and Creel arrive at San José, Costa Rica, and are warmly greeted.

May 25.—President Fallières of France arrives in London and is met by King Edward (see page 45).

May 26.—The Central American Court of Justice is opened at Cartago, Costa Rica.

May 27.—It is announced that a complete agreement on Morocco has been reached between France and Germany.

June 3.—Announcement is made of the introduction of penny postage between America and England, to become effective on October 1 of this year.

June 5.—The Chinese Government plans to spend the greater part of the Boxer indemnity returned by the United States in educating Chinese youths in American schools and colleges.

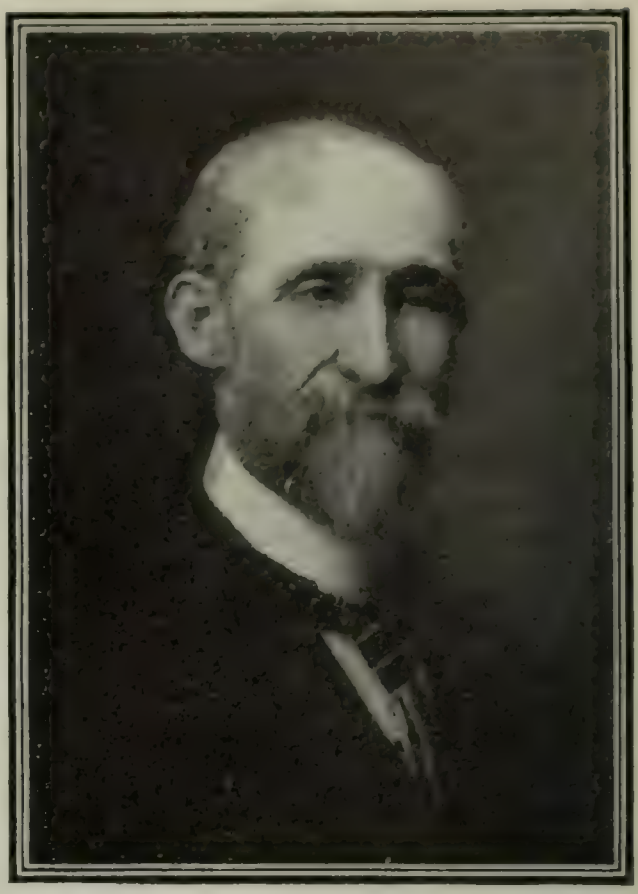
June 6.—Servia withdraws its representative from Montenegro....The organ of President Castro of Venezuela praises President Roosevelt for increasing the bonds uniting American republics.

June 8.—Nicaragua makes strong representations to Guatemala to obtain the release of citizens held prisoners by the latter country.... It is announced that an agreement between the United States and Germany regarding an arbitration treaty has practically been reached.

June 9.—King Edward and Czar Nicholas meet at Reval.

June 14.—Ambassador David J. Hill is received in official audience by the German Emperor.

June 15.—A parcels-post convention is signed by the United States and France, to become effective on August 15....A British court sent from Shanghai begins at Seoul the trial of a British citizen accused by Japanese of stirring up sedition....Belgium's reply to the desires of America and Great Britain regarding reforms in the Congo Independent State promises to meet the requests made by the two latter nations.



HON. JOSEPH M. BROWN.

(Victorious in the primaries for Democratic candidate for Governor of Georgia.)

June 16.—Secretary Taft's letter to President Amador announcing the intention of the United States to see that fair elections are held in Panama is made public on the isthmus.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

May 21.—In a collision of passenger trains at Contich, Belgium, about sixty persons were killed and 100 injured....More than 85,000 school children assemble at Schoenbrun Castle, near Vienna, in celebration of the sixtieth anniversary of Emperor Francis Joseph's accession to the throne....The national assembly of the Presbyterian Church meets in Kansas City, Mo.

May 22.—In an explosion at a Paris sugar factory 132 persons are injured.

May 23.—The building given by King Victor Emanuel to the International Institute of Agriculture is dedicated at Rome....An airship being tested at Oakland, Cal., falls to the earth from a height of 300 feet, seriously injuring sixteen men.

May 24.—Floods cause much loss of life and property in Oklahoma and Texas....The chapel at the Naval Academy at Annapolis is dedicated.

May 25.—The will of Archibald Henry Blount, leaving $450,000 to Yale University, is admitted to probate in London....The men involved in the British shipbuilding strike vote to accept the terms offered by the employers.

May 27.—In ærial navigation M. Delagrange breaks all former records; at Rome he covers a

distance of nearly ten miles in 15 minutes and 25 seconds.

May 28.—The Bank of England reduces its rate of discount from 3 to 2½ per cent....A typhoon at Hankow, China, and a coal-mine fire at Kwangse cause the death of about 2000 persons.

May 29.—The International Polar Congress meets at Brussels; twelve countries are represented.

May 30.—M. Delagrange makes a world's aeroplane record near Rome, flying 12,750 meters in 15 minutes and 26 seconds....In the international balloon race from London, the British æronaut Griffith Brewer, in the balloon *Lotus*, is the winner....The body of George Clinton, first Governor of the State of New York and Vice-President of the United States, is buried at Kingston, N. Y., with impressive ceremonies. ....Secretary Taft delivers a Memorial Day address at Grant's Tomb, New York City.

May 31.—The eight newly chosen bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church are consecrated at Baltimore (see page 72)....The city of Kingston, N. Y., continues its celebration of the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of its settlement.

June 1.—The fifth International Congress of Cotton-Spinners begins its sessions in Paris.... The Methodist Episcopal General Conference closes its sessions at Baltimore.

June 2.—Charles A. Coey's balloon, the *Chicago*, ascending from Quincy, Ill., is compelled to land at Clear Lake, S. D., after covering 800 miles in 11 hours.

June 3.—The International Cotton Congress, at Paris, recommends concerted action to curtail production and the introduction of a net weight basis of purchase in Europe.....The body of M. Zola is moved from Montmartre to the Pantheon....The one-hundredth anniversary of the birth of Jefferson Davis is generally celebrated throughout the South.

June 4.—At the close of the ceremonies attending the canonization of Emile Zola in the Pantheon, at Paris, a military writer named Gregori fires two shots at Major Alfred Dreyfus, wounding him in one arm....A typhoon destroys a pearling fleet off West Australia, 270 lives and forty vessels being lost....The Imperial Bank of Germany reduces its rate of discount from 5 to 4½ per cent.

June 5.—Destructive tornadoes pass over southern Nebraska and parts of northern Kansas; at least twenty-one persons are killed and five fatally injured....An explosion on the armored cruiser *Tennessee* causes the death of five men....An eight-inch snowfall is reported from Butte, Mont.

June 6.—Sixteen workmen are killed by an explosion in a celuloid factory near Vienna.... Floods cause great damage to crops in Alberta. ....Henry Reiber and John Young, who confessed to having stolen over $1,000,000 from the Farmers' Deposit National Bank, Pittsburg, are sentenced to ten years each in the penitentiary.

June 9.—A general reduction in the price of steel products and iron ores is agreed upon.... The International Miners' Congress passes a resolution in favor of an eight-hour day, restricting the time to six hours under unfavorable working conditions.

June 10.—The day is made a State holiday in Nevada to celebrate the dedication of the Mackay School of Mines and the Borglum statue of John W. Mackay, both presented by Clarence H. Mackay and his mother....A monument to the Russian dead at Port Arthur is unveiled on Antzu-Shan....Gen. Clement A. Evans, of Georgia, is elected commander in chief of the United Confederate Veterans, succeeding the late Gen. Stephen D. Lee.

June 11.—A combination in the British steel trade, with a capital of $375,000,000, is reported.

June 12.—The Cunarder *Lusitania* makes the long course of 2800 miles from Queenstown to New York in 4 days, 20 hours, and 7 minutes, averaging 24.88 knots; she also makes the best day's run, 641 miles....4000 Mexican troops take the field against the Yaqui Indians, peace negotiations having been broken....In a pageant held in Vienna to celebrate the jubilee of the reign of Emperor Francis Joseph, 20,000 Austro-Hungarians take part.

June 13.—Bubonic plague is reported in an Indian tribe in Panama near the Colombian border.

June 14.—William K. Vanderbilt's colt Northeast wins the Grand Prix de Paris, the chief racing contest on the French turf....A gift of over $500,000 to Johns Hopkins Hospital and University by Henry Phipps is announced....A world's temperance congress to commemorate the founding of the first temperance society at



NEW YORK STATE SENATOR OTTO FOELKER BEING ESCORTED TO THE CAPITOL AT ALBANY

(Senator Foelker's vote insured the triumph of Governor Hughes' anti-race-track gambling bill.)

Saratoga, N. Y., 100 years ago, is opened at that place.

June 15.—The largest international woman's suffrage congress ever held is opened at Amsterdam; delegates are present from twenty-three nations.

June 16.—Fifty fishing boats are wrecked off the coast of Japan, 350 men being drowned.... The Pan-Anglican Congress begins its sessions in London.

June 17.—President L. Clark Seelye, of Smith College, Northampton, Mass., resigns.

June 18.—The last spike is driven in the Ecuadorean Railroad connecting Quito with Guayaquil.

June 20.—The Admiralty Court of London decides that the British cruiser *Gladiator* is to blame for the collision (on April 25) with the American liner *St. Paul*.

OBITUARY.

May 21.—Rev. Dr. W. S. Jones, Archbishop of Cape Town, 68.

May 22.—Gov. John Sparks, of Nevada, 65.

May 23.—François Coppée, dramatist and poet, dean of the French Academy, 66 (see page 110)....Peter F. Dailey, the comedian, 45.... Francis Bowes Stevens, the oldest resident of Hoboken, N. J., 94.

May 24.—Tom Morris, known as the grand old man of golf, 87....Brig.-Gen. Evan Miles, U. S. A., retired, 70.

May 25.—Homer H. Merriam, head of the house which publishes Webster's Dictionary, at Springfield, Mass., 95.

May 26.—David Henderson, journalist and theatrical manager, 55....Philip Loring Allen, of the staff of the New York *Evening Post*, 30. ....Adolf L'Arronge, the German dramatist, theatrical manager and musical conductor, 70.

May 27.—Rear-Admiral A. S. Crowninshield, U. S. N., retired, 72....Sir Alfred Egerton, 64.

May 28.—Gen. Stephen D. Lee, commander-in-chief of the United Confederate Veterans, 75....Ex-Justice Charles Russell Ingalls, of the New York State Supreme Court, 89....Walter Satterlee, the artist, 64.

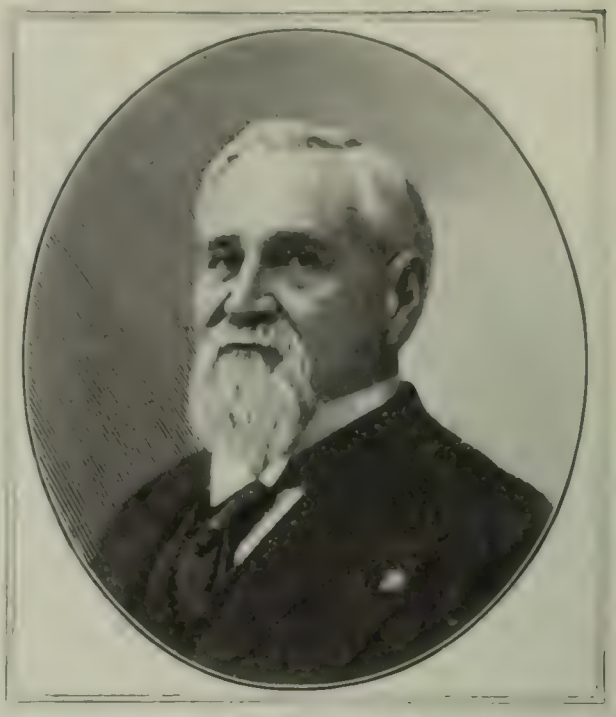
May 31.—Rear-Admiral Jackson McElmell, U. S. N., retired, 74....Mrs. Mary Mitchell Albaugh, the actress, 77....Dr. Louis Frechette, the French-Canadian poet, 68.

June 1.—Ex-Senator James K. Jones, of Arkansas, 69.

June 2.—Gen. Sir Redvers Henry Buller, for a time commander-in-chief of the British forces during the Boer War, 68....George West Wilson, editor of the Jacksonville (Fla.) *Times-Union*, 49.

June 3.—Sir Robert Gillespie Reid, of Montreal, Canada....Capt. Alfred J. Standing, one of the founders of the Carlisle Indian School, 63....Rev. Edward Wilson, formerly bishop of the Reformed Episcopal Church in Canada, 87.

June 4.—Hon. Daniel H. McMillan, the former district federal judge in New Mexico, 60.... Mrs. Jerome Jones, proprietor of the Boston *Transcript*, well known as a philanthropist and social worker, 76.



THE LATE GEN. STEPHEN D. LEE.

June 5.—Dr. Williamson F. Boyakin, of Kansas, 101.

June 6.—Peter White, of Marquette, Mich., a pioneer in the iron and copper development of the upper peninsula of Michigan, 78.

June 7.—William Emory Quinby, for thirty-five years editor-in-chief of the Detroit *Free Press*, 73.

June 9.—Joseph Larocque, one of the leaders of the New York bar, 77....Giulio Prinetti, former Italian Minister for Foreign Affairs, 57.

June 10.—Oliver Hazard Perry Belmont, of New York, 50....Col. John Frederick Finerty, newspaper writer, lecturer, and Irish patriot, 62. ....Marie Louis Gaston Boissier, French historian and archeologist, 85....Ex-Congressman W. S. Forman, of Illinois, 61.

June 11.—Rev. Dr. George E. Merrill, president of Colgate University, 61....William Leete Stone, historian and editor, 73....William Davis Ely, oldest alumnus of Yale University, member of the class of 1836, 93.

June 12.—John Vines Wright, the oldest living ex-member of Congress, 80....Ex-Congressman Charles Tappan Dunwell, of Brooklyn, N. Y., 56....Frank C. Bangs, the veteran actor.

June 14.—Marquis Vega de Armijo, former Spanish Premier and former president of the Chamber of Deputies....The Earl of Derby, Governor-General of Canada 1888-93, 67.

June 16.—John B. Roach, the shipbuilder, 68. ....Eugene P. Murphy, who was sent to take possession of Alaska in the name of the United States when that Territory was purchased from Russia, 63.

June 17.—Representative Ariosto A. Wiley, of the Second Alabama Congress district, 57.

June 18.—Joseph Hammerslough, one of the founders of the Clothiers' Association, 76.

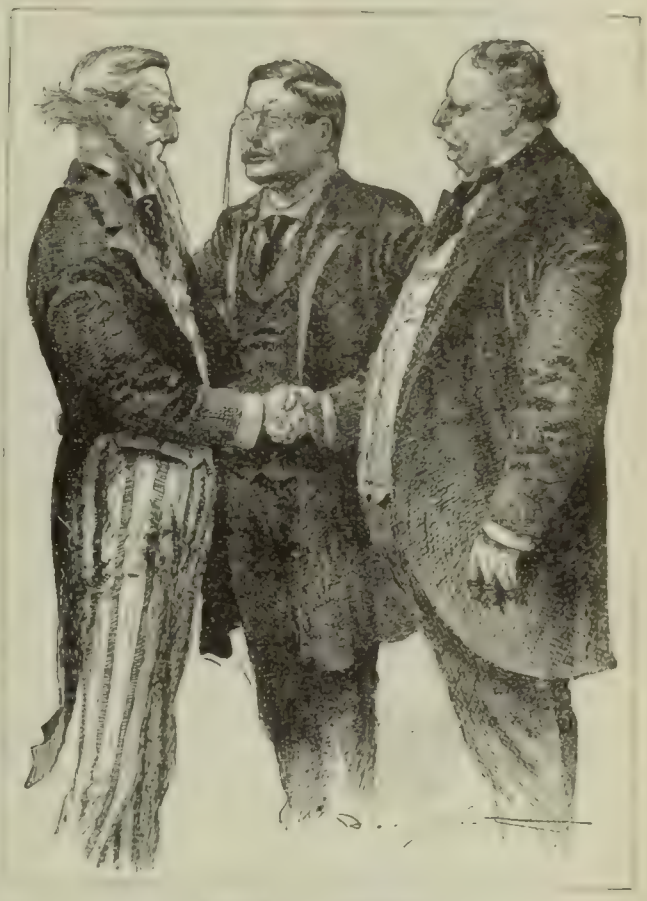
June 20.—Donelson C. Jenkins, a former well-known newspaper editor of the Southwest, 83.

SOME POLITICAL CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



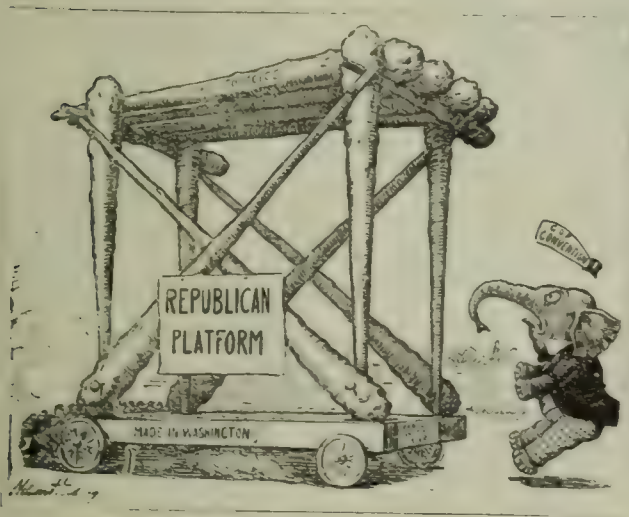
THE CANDIDATE.

From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



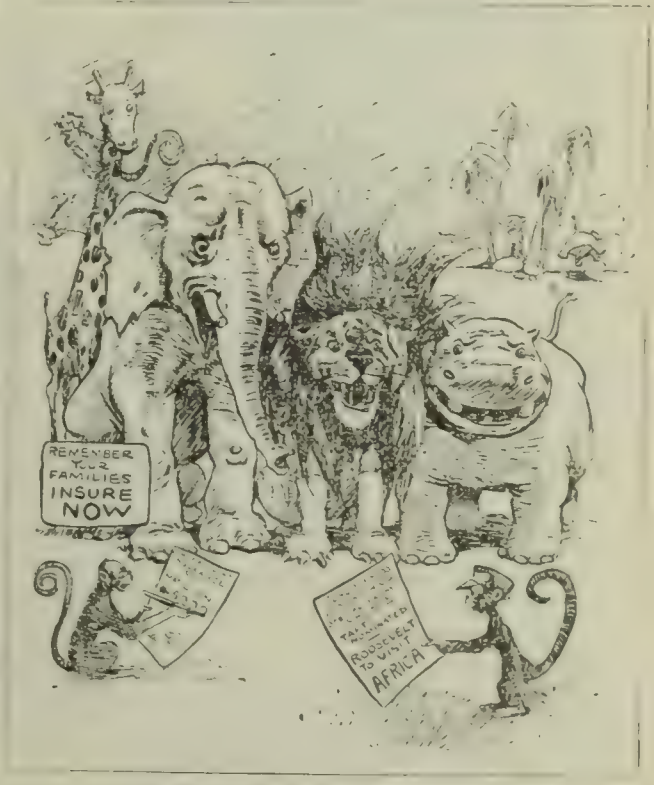
"HE'S ALL RIGHT."

From the *Evening Mail* (New York.)



A READY-MADE PLATFORM.

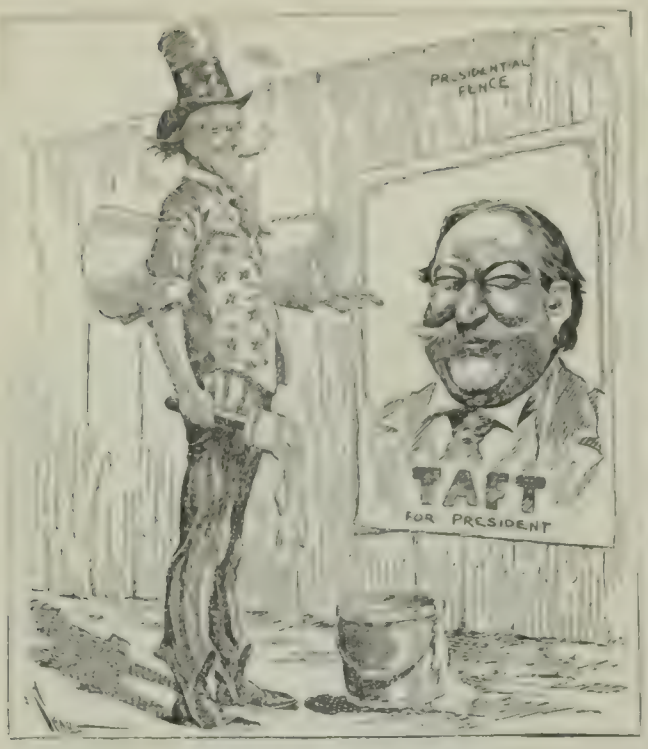
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York.)



ROOSEVELT TO VISIT AFRICA.

(And the Jungle Folk Won't Ratify.)

From the *Press* (Philadelphia).



HE'S THE BOY FOR ME.
From the *Globe* (New York).



NOT A WEAKLING.
From the *Evening World* (New York).

The chief, if not the dominant, note of the cartoons published just before the choice was made at Chicago was Mr. Taft's eminent fitness for the Presidency.



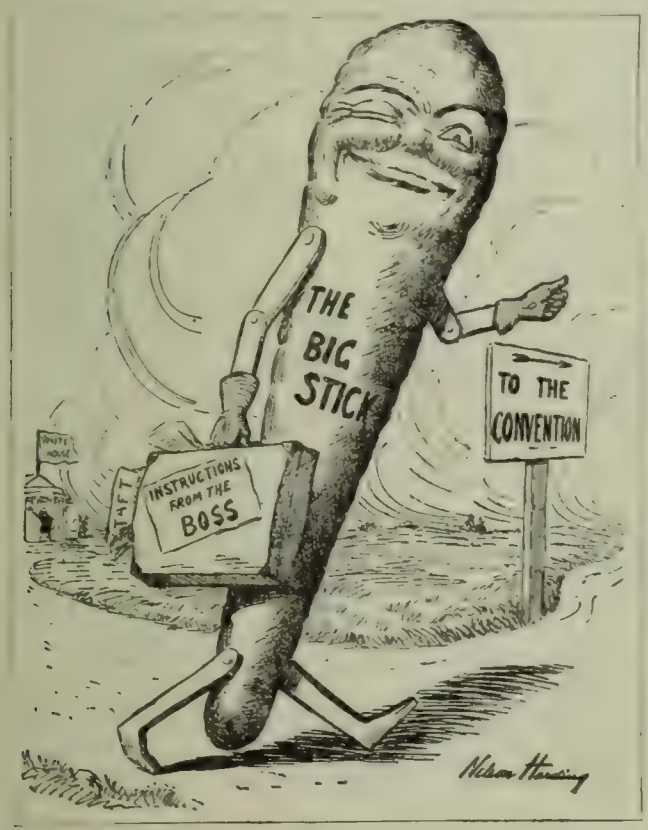
UNJUST DISCRIMINATION.
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



THE GREATEST LEADER OF THEM ALL.

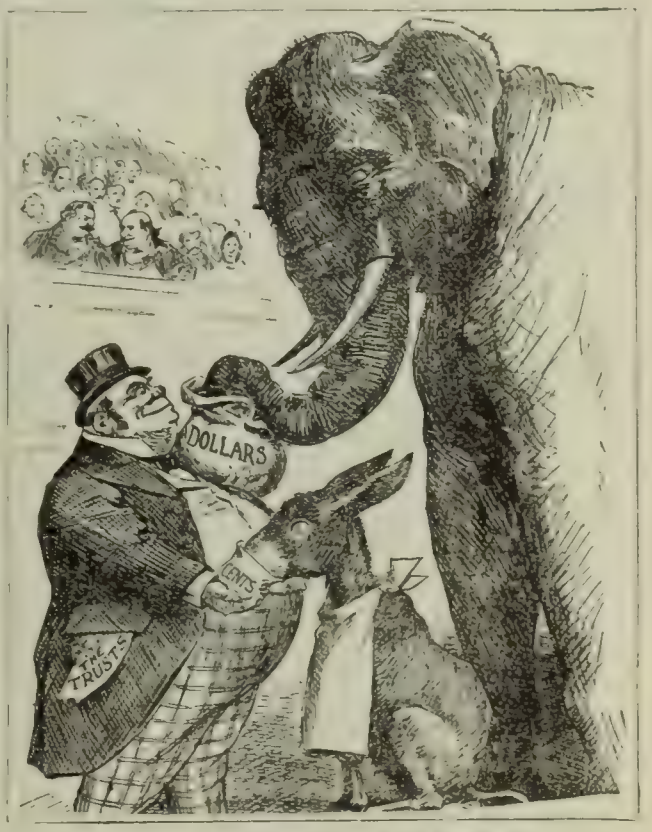
From the *Herald* (New York).

The "Big Stick" is a favorite feature of perhaps the majority of cartoons on the work of the Chicago convention. The comic artists evidently like the "Big Stick."



THE "BIG STICK" WAS THERE.

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



FEEDING THE ANIMALS IN PUBLIC.

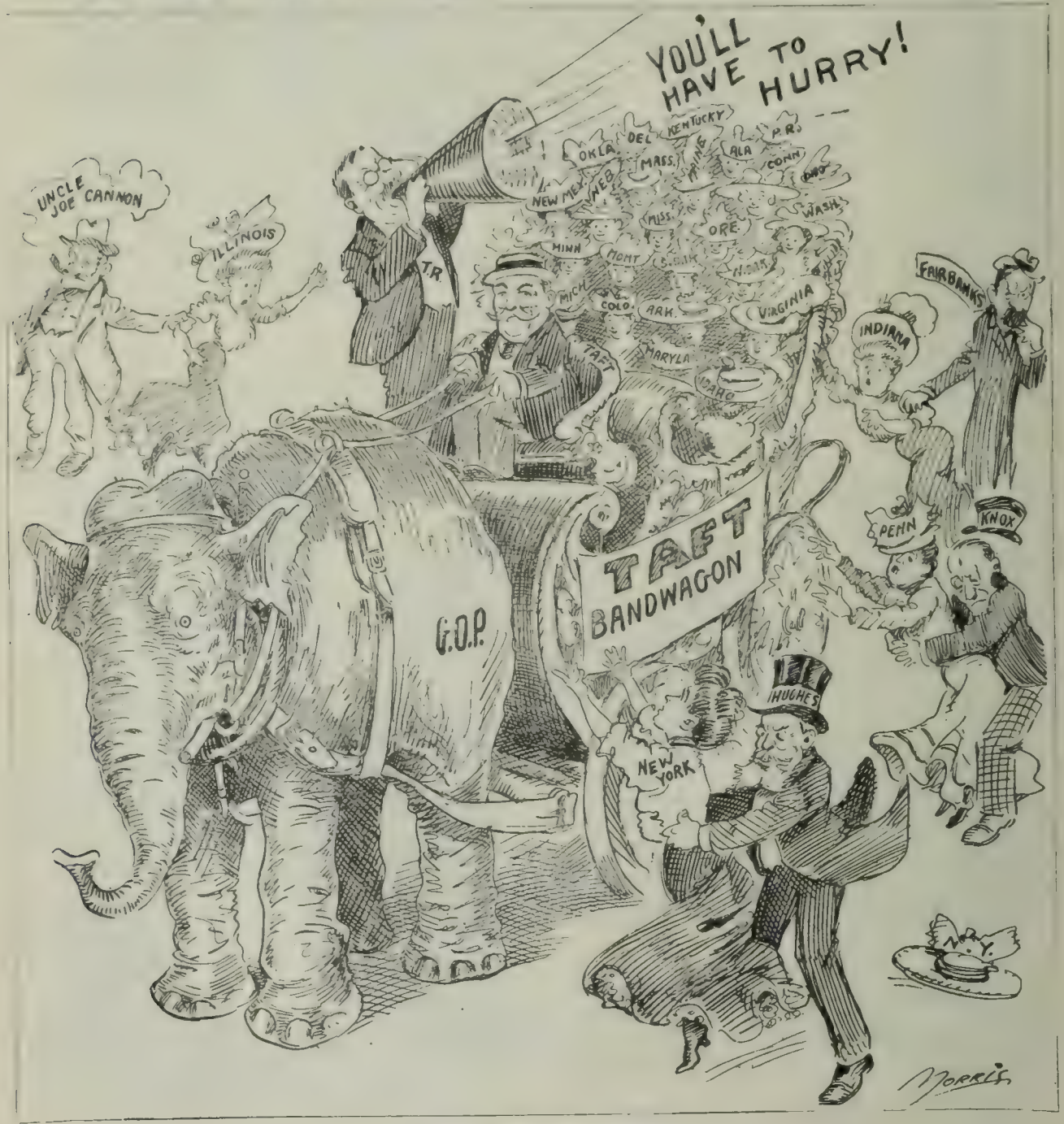
From the *Herald* (New York).



"WE'RE WEARING OUR HEARTS AWAY FOR YOU, BILLEE TAFT."
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



"LET US ALONE."
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



LOADING THE BAND WAGON.
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



SOMETIMES YOU CAN MAKE HIM DRINK.
From the *World* (New York).

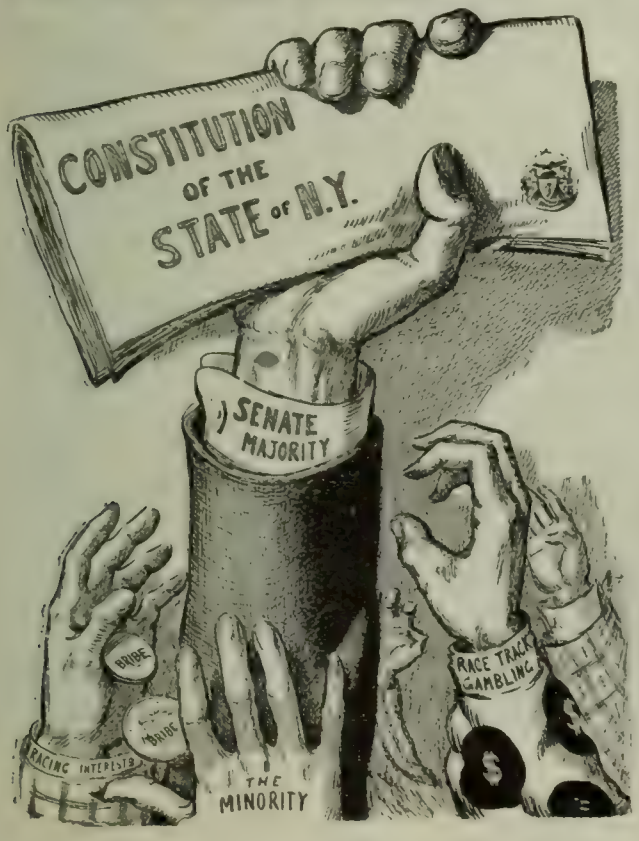
The dramatic situation in New York last month, when Governor Hughes succeeded in literally forcing the State Senate into passing the Hart-Agnew anti-betting bills, naturally furnished the text for cartoonists in newspapers all over the country. The Governor is generally complimented for upholding the constitution of the State, and many people regard him as having accomplished an almost impossible task. Sometimes, as the cartoonist of the New York *World* graphically points out above, when an unwilling horse is driven to water a masterful spirit is found who can make him drink.



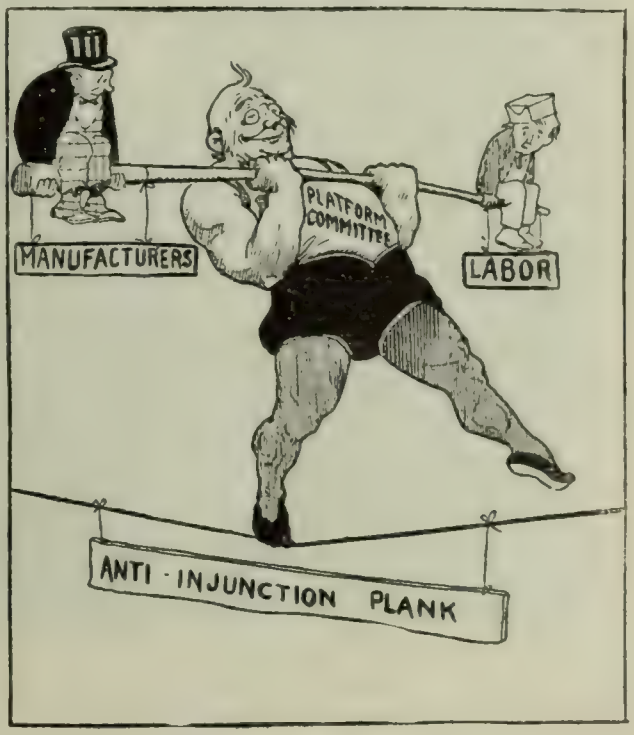
BUT BRYAN GOES ON FOREVER.
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



TALKING HIM TO DEATH.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



UPHELD!
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



A DIFFICULT FEAT.
From the *Ledger* (Philadelphia).



Photograph by Moffett, Chicago.

HON. WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN.

(Leading candidate before the Democratic National Convention at Denver this month.)

THE NEW BRYAN.

BY WILLIS J. ABBOT.

SOMEWHERE the other day I read the statement that the Bryan who will doubtless be nominated at Denver in a few days is not intellectually or ethically the same Bryan who carried the Chicago Convention of 1896 off its feet with his "Cross of Gold and Crown of Thorns" speech.

This assertion is only about half true. The Bryan of 1896 had youth and its fire. The Bryan of to-day has more maturity, more knowledge of the world, and more poise. But it is to be questioned whether there has been so much change in Bryan as there has been in the temper of the people to whom he made his appeal twelve years ago, and to whom he is renewing practically the same appeal, with the exception of one issue, to-day.

The people who in 1896 could see in him nothing but a hot-blooded zealot have come to look upon him as a serious and somewhat conservative public man, actuated perhaps more than any one in public life by the highest principles of ethics and of morals. But the change has not been in Bryan. Even in the bitter campaign which first made him a great national figure, I, having known him rather intimately and having studied his character for nearly four years before that campaign, said that if Mr. Bryan should be elected he would disappoint his more radical supporters and please the people in the Democratic or any other party who wanted to see a straightforward business administration conducted quietly, without seeking for dramatic effect, and not in any way directed for the overthrow of honestly existing business institutions. The talk in that campaign concerning anarchism and repudiation was political buncombe altogether. No man could be farther then from anarchism than was Mr. Bryan; none to-day believes more fully in the ability of the law or the lawmaking bodies to find a remedy for practically every political or economic ill, provided the lawmakers and the law expositors are responsive to the will of the people and alive to the people's needs.

A man who holds views of that sort is as far removed from anarchism as the north pole is from the south. Yet he held these views in 1896 when the cry of anarchy was raised. He holds them still. One wonders whether it is a new Bryan, or a newly awakened public conscience and public intellect, with which we shall have to do in the campaign of this year.

SILVER NO LONGER AN ISSUE.

But the silver question. There indeed is a marked and material change in the apparent attitude of the man. He no longer preaches silver. But he says very frankly that the need which was supposed to exist in 1896 for a greater volume of currency because of the then existing scarcity of gold has been met, not as we then would have met it by coining silver with gold at a fixed ratio, but by the discovery of new goldfields, which have enormously increased the output of that metal, and added prodigiously to the world's stock of metallic money.

There is no sixteen-to-one idea in the Bryan mind to-day. There is no apology for the dogma of 1896, nor any attempt to revive it. Yet I am not so sure that even on this point Mr. Bryan has changed so much as the community to which he must make his appeal. We were told in those days that to continue coining silver as money of ultimate redemption amounted to repudiation and dishonor. But as Mr. Bryan pointed out in conversation with me only a few days ago, the very public men who thought it was perilous to make dollars out of silver have now passed a currency law which will enable the banks to issue money based upon railroad bonds, upon commercial securities, upon any asset which a speculative bank cashier may take and which an overburdened Secretary of the Treasury may perfunctorily approve. The Bryanite point of view, even to-day, with silver no longer an issue, would doubtless be that a precious metal dug out of the earth, possessing the intrinsic value which any limited product of labor must possess, and having a special value for use in the arts, was at least as good a form of money as bank-notes based on railroad bonds or upon the notes of speculators or captains of finance. However, as Jay Gould once remarked, when the Erie printing presses were running overtime, "The American people are mighty partial to bonds." Still it does not appear that

on this point Mr. Bryan has changed as much as public sentiment has changed, though he has frankly, during the last six years, declared that the question of bimetallism had passed out of the arena of political discussion.

MODERATION OF THE BRYAN DEMANDS IN '96.

When one looks back on that bitterly denounced Chicago platform of 1896 one wonders why the denunciation was so fierce and how the public mind has changed so greatly on the issues it announced. The Roosevelt of to-day is very much like the Bryan of '96; for many of the demands made in that platform have been accepted and some of them given legislative effect by the President. Many planks in that platform were of immediate importance only, but most of those which were then fundamental remain fundamental to-day, though there may still exist some difference of opinion upon them.

What was known then as the attack upon the Supreme Court has at the moment I am writing this come up in a new form in Republican councils, for the question as to whether the Republican platform should contain a plank expressing unqualified confidence in both the federal and the State courts received such general discussion both pro and con as to indicate that even within the Republican ranks there is a very considerable sentiment in opposition to the deification of any and all men who might happen to be appointed to the bench.

The old Bryan was not averse to criticising a court, and while the new Bryan has had less to say on that particular point, there is no reason to doubt his continued belief in the views of the first campaign.

The income tax was an issue in 1896. Its principle has been accepted in many States and approved by the President, though the Supreme Court decision still blocks its enactment into federal law.

A WIDELY TRAVELED OBSERVER.

So it would be easy in discussing the changing conditions since the first Bryan campaign to show that the people and the opposition party had come nearer going over to Bryanism than Bryan has come to deserting his early ideals.

Yet he is a new man in many ways. When first nominated, barely beyond the constitutional age prescribed for a President, he knew his own country, but none other. Since that time he has made frequent trips abroad, has made one trip around the world, has visited every one of our colonial possessions, and indeed is better equipped to discuss the foreign relations of the United States and its colonial problems than any man in public life.

Of course, I know that the instant rejoinder to this statement would be the mention of the name of Secretary Taft. But the difference between the studies of the two men is that Secretary Taft has traveled as an official, has gone about the Philippines, Panama, and our other outlying possessions in somewhat of the state of a proconsul. He has been fêted everywhere, and subordinate officials have had ample warning to prepare conditions so that they would meet with his approval. Mr. Bryan has gone merely as an unofficial American citizen, eminent, no doubt, and with a name known in all parts of the world. But for him there were no warships to act as yachts, no saluting cannon, and no incentive on the part of any man to conceal from him the facts which he set forth to seek.

And so the simple but not unsuccessful country lawyer of Lincoln has since 1896 become one of the most widely traveled men living. But his new strength of to-day,—not his intellectual, but his political,—strength, is derived rather from his travels within his own country than from those expeditions which have taken him to the ends of the earth. Ever since his first campaign Mr. Bryan, with the commendable purpose of providing for his family and advancing the cause which he typifies and represents, has followed the business of a lecturer. In this honorable calling, in which, by the way, he was preceded by such men as William Lloyd Garrison, Henry Ward Beecher, James Russell Lowell, and Ralph Waldo Emerson, and is joined to-day by such public men as Senator Beveridge, Senator La Follette, Senator Tillman, Representative Champ Clark, and former Senator Dubois, he has not merely achieved a competence, but has been able to visit every nook and corner of these United States of ours. The Bryan of 1896 knew Washington, for he had been an efficient Congressman there. He knew the Mississippi Valley, for he had early taken an active interest in the development of waterways,—to which, by the way, the President is now committed,—and had attended all the conventions held to further that cause. But he had not traveled from Portland, Me., to Portland, Ore.; from Fernandina, Fla., to Santa Barbara, Cal. He had not dropped into

scores of small towns in every State and made himself known to the millions of people who to-day flock to cheer him whether he preaches on the "Prince of Peace" or delivers a political speech on the principles of Democracy. The present-day Bryan is known to a million men where the one who came somewhat nervously at first to that historic rostrum in Chicago in 1896 was known to scarce a hundred.

Probably no man in the United States, not even the President himself, has so wide a personal acquaintance and so many followers who are not merely loyal, but sometimes to a degree fanatical as he. And this following has been built up without the aid of any patronage, State or national; with no offices to give, no favors to dispense. And that it is a continuing following has been shown by the way in which during the last year, or more properly, during the last four months, the prominent politicians of the Democratic party who are not wholly admirers of Mr. Bryan's attitude have been compelled by their constituents to concede to him delegation after delegation, until his nomination now seems assured.

MR. BRYAN'S PROSPERITY.

And there is, too, another difference between the new Bryan and the old, though this is a material and not a moral difference. But in 1896 Mr. Bryan went to Chicago unheralded and unsung, not even provided with credentials to the convention which afterward nominated him, but merely at the head of a contesting delegation. Many stories have been told after the fact of carefully laid plans for his nomination. There were no such plans. Governor Altgeld, who has been credited with arranging the *coup* which resulted in the nomination, was, in fact, the last of the strong leaders in the convention to yield to the demand for it. But this year the new Bryan goes to the convention with two-thirds of the delegates either instructed for him or personally devoted to his cause.

The Bryan of 1896 was ridiculed very unjustly for his poverty; the Bryan of 1908 is attacked very unjustly for his wealth. But I remember well that in '96, when some of the assertions that he had been unable to earn a living for himself in the practice of the law stung him somewhat, he showed me his account book for the first two years of his practice as a stranger in Lincoln. The records showed a rather singular success for a young and almost unknown lawyer. Mr. Bryan has always owned his own home. In '96 it was an attractive and not too small a frame house within the town limits of Lincoln. Some people then sneered at him because he did not live in a style more beseeming a Presidential possibility. To-day they sneer because, with advancing years and as the result of indomitable energy and the utilization of his mental power, he has built himself a beautiful house outside of the city of Lincoln. In brief, while the first Bryan was by no means a pauper, the new Bryan is prosperous, but his prosperity has been coined from his own brain and is in no way dependent upon speculation, investments, or legal retainers from trusts or monopolies. Such prosperity as he has to-day comes from hard work on the lecture platform and from a weekly newspaper which he founded and to which he gives all the attention which it is possible for a man continually traveling to devote.

AS EDITOR AND PUBLISHER.

If Mr. Bryan cared more for money and less for ethics than he does, the income which he derives from his paper, the *Commoner*, might readily be tripled. His advertising manager in Chicago some time ago almost wept as he told me of the obstacles which were put in his way when he attempted to secure advertising. I am only guessing at it, but I think the circulation of the paper exceeds 200,000 copies weekly. Any journalist or publisher knows what might be done with such a circulation. But the *Commoner* carries only a beggarly two or three columns of advertising. The reason is that the owner of the *Commoner* clings to the idea that its advertising columns are just exactly as much a part of the paper as its editorial columns, and that if he is responsible for the editorial "we," he is equally responsible for any advertisement which appears in the paper which secures its circulation through his national prominence.

This is not particularly an illustration of the "New Bryan." I thrashed that issue over with him at least eight years ago. Then I discussed with him the question of the responsibility of the owner of a newspaper for the advertisements which appeared in its columns. He held then, as he holds now, the conviction that the advertising columns of a newspaper should be kept clean of all announcements for which the owner would not personally stand.

There is nothing new in this attitude on

the part of Bryan. From his very earliest days in public life he has insisted upon making his private business affairs run parallel with his public utterances and beliefs. There are men in public life who believe that they can sit in the United States Senate or the House of Representatives and represent all the people while as attorneys they represent a very few of the people whose interests are necessarily opposed to those of the many. Mr. Bryan is not one of this sort. He discontinued the practice of the law when he went to Congress first, and has never resumed it.

In these later days a sense of his responsibility to the millions of people in this country who have put their trust in him, and who look upon him with an admiration amounting almost to idolatry, has impelled him to give up any sort of legal work, any kind of personal activity which would withdraw him in any degree from the fight for the people in which he has been enlisted. I know that Mr. Bryan's entrance upon this campaign means to him a struggle, a task, which if he could set it aside, he would not undertake. But while the Bryan of 1896 was a youth flushed with ambition, eager to rush to the forefront as he then did, the new Bryan is a man not desiring so much the honors that are proffered to him, but rather feeling, with a solemn sense of responsibility, his duty to take up the battle for true Democratic principles and to lead a party long out of power to ultimate victory.

TWELVE YEARS OF LITERARY CULTURE.

The new Bryan is a vastly more intellectual man than the one who stirred us twelve years ago. His speeches now are characterized with a finer literary style than those of earlier days. Witness the little address made almost without preparation at the conference of governors held in Washington a few weeks ago. One phrase used then has passed almost into a proverb. He was referring, somewhat indirectly, to the device by which men who represent what has come to be called predatory wealth evade punishment by going first from the federal courts to the State courts, or from the State courts to the federal courts. Mr. Bryan said:

> There is no twilight zone between the nation and the State in which exploiting interests can take refuge from both, and my observation is that most, not all, but most, of the contentions over the line between nation and State are traceable to predatory corporations which are trying to shield themselves from deserved punishment, or endeavoring to prevent needed restraining legislation.

Within twenty-four hours the President had adopted the metaphor of the "twilight zone," and it has passed equally into literature and into politics. It is a more restrained phrase, more poetic possibly, than the Bryan of 1896 might have used. At that time he would have been more likely to have said that there was not a No Man's Land. But to him advancing years and a more cosmopolitan experience have brought also a literary taste which finds expression now in all his platform utterances.

A CHANGE IN THE POPULAR ATTITUDE.

I remember well, and so too will most New Yorkers, the wonderful and impressive parade of New York business men during the 1896 campaign, which filled Broadway from the Battery to Forty-second Street, and which was held as a protest against Bryan. The new Bryan has been asked within the last few months to address many of the associations which then paraded,—associations of bankers, of publishers, of manufacturers,—and has found a hearty welcome and a respectful hearing at all.

I recall, too,—for in that '96 campaign I was deeply interested,—the bitterness of the financial community in Chicago against Bryan and all his works; but now he cannot pass through the city without being invited by the bankers and the commercial men, who then excoriated him, to address their organizations.

And, finally, I recall the somewhat bitter speech made by Theodore Roosevelt, then Police Commissioner of New York, at the Coliseum in Chicago, in which he could say no words too harsh about the Bryan of 1896. When a short time ago Mr. Bryan's friends found him selected by President Roosevelt to be one of the five unofficial citizens chosen, because of their eminence, to advise with the governors of the United States, they thought that whatever Mr. Bryan himself might think, at least the President and the President's advisers and associates thought there was indeed a new Bryan.

WHY M. FALLIÈRES IS AN IDEAL FRENCH PRESIDENT.

BY ADOLPHE COHN.

(Professor of Romance History and Languages, Columbia University.)

THE striking differences that exist between the Presidency of the French Republic and the Presidency of the United States are perhaps never so glaringly visible as when a French President sets out for a journey out of his own country, and spends a few days attending all sorts of social functions and gala performances as the guest of a foreign court. To some Americans it looks a little too much like playing at royalty, and these would strongly object to such a magnifying of at least the spectacular side of the temporary office of President; at the same time they may be inclined to ask why, if the country can do without a President, as it evidently does while the President thus indulges in a big foreign junket, it should have a President at all. For it must be remembered that the French constitution has no provision for a Vice-President to take the place of a disabled or absent President. And the fact is that for the regular dispatch of business the Republic of France can do as well without as with its President. Office-seekers even are not disturbed, as they undoubtedly would be in the United States, by an event which would make it impossible for them to go and to have their protectors go with their applications to the fountain-head of official favors. The ministers, the members of the cabinet, are left to them; that is all they want; for the President himself they have no use whatever.

POPULAR APPROVAL OF PRESIDENTIAL TOURS.

The French public, therefore, was in no way disturbed when it was announced that President Fallières was about to follow the example set by two of his predecessors, President Faure and President Loubet, and that he would begin his excursions abroad by a visit to King Edward VII. Quite the reverse: expressions of approval were heard everywhere of a step that was likely to result in a tightening of the bond now uniting the people of France and England. Not so sentimental, not so spectacular, as the Russian alliance, the English alliance enjoys a more general and also a more serious popularity than its still existing predecessor. The Russian alliance meant a chance, perhaps an almost sure chance, of victory in case of war; the English alliance meant a strong, perhaps an overwhelming, chance of there being no war at all; and in France to-day it would be exceedingly difficult to find any advocate of a warlike policy. In France everybody is for peace: the business man, because business is always for peace; the peasant farmer, because he does not want his fields devastated by the tread of hostile, nay of friendly, armies; the "Chauvin" even, because he does not know whether the new army, composed of soldiers serving only two years with the colors, would be equal to the task involved now in a great continental war; most of all the serious political leaders, divided upon so many points, yet united in this that they want a republican form of government to remain a permanency in France and that they do not want the republican establishment to have to stand the strain of a war, not even perhaps of a victorious war.

BENEFITS TO FRANCE OF THE UNDERSTANDING WITH ENGLAND AND RUSSIA.

An alliance with England, with Russia perhaps drawn into it, means the dislocation of the old Triple Alliance, for Italy would never go to war against France and England combined. She might perhaps go to war against France alone. But not a single element in the population would countenance war against both, for every Italian who is not friendly to France is friendly to England, and every Italian who is not friendly to England is friendly to France. And as to Austria, before she can turn her united forces against any foe she has first to decide whether she will be German, Slav, or Magyar. The friends of peace in Europe all feel that the only possibility of disturbance at the present time lies under the skull of one individual. Even this one is felt to be at bottom desirous of securing a continuance of the blessings of peace, but he is apt



CLÉMENT-ARMAND FALLIÈRES, PRESIDENT OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

to go off his head at times, and, should such an occurrence arise at a critical juncture, nothing but the fear of an overpowering combination of hostile forces will be able to bring him back to his senses. This is the dose which is expected to be administered by the new system of alliances.

EVOLUTION OF THE PRESIDENCY IN FRANCE.

In favor of this system, what could President Fallières in his recent trip to England do? Nothing but talk. But his word was the word of France. The word of the Minister of Foreign Affairs or of the Prime Minister would have been only the word of the administration. This may seem strange to Americans, accustomed as they are to link the word *Administration* with the names of their Presidents. To a certain extent it might have seemed strange even to the French in the early times of their Third Republic. The present situation is the outcome of an evolution the true meaning of which began to be recognized only a few years ago. Formerly the Presidency of the republic was looked upon as the natural goal

which an ambitious politician would try to reach. Freycinet, Jules Ferry, Waldeck-Rousseau sought it, but in vain. Had Gambetta lived he, too, would have tried, and, very likely, succeeded. Neither President Fallières nor his immediate predecessor can be held to belong to the same class as those men, and yet the country seems to be perfectly satisfied with them and to have found in them just the type of incumbent needed for the Presidential office such as it has come to be defined not only by the constitution of 1875 but also by the political development of the country since its enactment.

THE CHANGE FROM FAURE TO LOUBET.

And yet, as often happens in history, the whole thing seems to have been a matter of mere chance. The sudden and tragic death of President Faure, in February, 1899, when the embers of the Dreyfus conflagration were still far from extinguished, threw the Republicans of France into the wildest confusion. There was no time for deliberation, as the constitution insists upon an immediate election whenever the Presidential office becomes vacant. It was decided to resort to the expedient nearest at hand. The presidency of the Senate is considered the second office in the republic; its occupant, Emile Loubet, would be promoted to the presidency of the republic. Whether he would be a mere stop-gap or a real President it was left for the future to determine.

President Loubet served his full term, to the country's evident satisfaction. Not only did his calm and judicial temper, already exhibited in the Senate Chamber, enable him admirably to fulfill the few active duties imposed upon the President by the constitution, but he developed an unexpected source of popularity, which served to give a new meaning to his high office. He had been in former years mayor of a small provincial town, Montélimar, and practically all the mayors of France (they number upward of 35,000) considered themselves honored in his exaltation. When invited by the government to a mammoth banquet in Paris, during the Exhibition of 1900, they flocked there in thousands and thousands and gave the President, after his speech at the banquet, an unprecedented ovation. The most significant fact in the occurrence was the total obliteration of all party lines, at least within what may be called the Republican persuasion. Thenceforth Republicans of all shades began to feel that they were *at home,* as it were, with the



MADAME FALLIÈRES.

President. He neither identified himself with nor antagonized the cabinet's policy. He was the ministers' friend and adviser, but no more than he was the friend and adviser of all the French patriots who were not trying to pull the ship of state back to its old monarchical moorings. Within the Republican ranks it was the cabinet's, not his, duty to follow a party policy. Only against the enemies of France and the enemies of the republic had he to assume an attitude of decided condemnation. His success was such that it left only two alternatives open when his term came to an end: either his re-election or the election of his successor in the presidency of the Senate. As he was sincerely anxious to return to private life, an enormous majority of the Republican members of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies, upon which devolved the election of the chief magistrate of the republic, gave their votes to Armand Fallières, president of the Senate.

WHY M. FALLIÈRES WAS CHOSEN.

He was not an untried man. He was sixty-five years of age. He had sat fourteen years in the Chamber of Deputies and sixteen years in the Senate, the last seven of which as its presiding officer. Like his predecessor, he had been mayor of a small provincial town, the town of Nérac; like him, also, he

had been a member of several cabinets and the head of one. He was, therefore, as conversant with public business as a man has to be who is not allowed by the constitution to perform a single official act without the signature of a cabinet officer, but upon whom devolves the delicate duty of selecting the head of each new ministry.

The tradition is now established. The President must be the friend of the ministers of to-day, but he must acquit himself so that nothing will prevent his being the friend of the ministers of to-morrow. For the performance of such duties no one could be better fitted by nature than the politician whom everybody, before his election to the Presidency, somewhat irreverently but with genuine sympathy called "*le gros* Fallières."

THE MAN FALLIÈRES TO-DAY.

Broad-shouldered, perhaps a trifle overstout, tipping the scales at certainly not less than 200, rosy cheeked, with a big fat hand, and a deep, jovial voice, tuned on purpose to utter a hearty welcome to every visitor; slow of gait, of course, but at the same time a hard proposition to others if they tried to move him from the stand he has taken, the President of France is a living antithesis to the French Premier of to-day. Spare of build, of nervous temperament, quick of motion, considering lost every minute spent otherwise than in fighting, Monsieur Clémenceau stands for party, and is not far from believing that there is no salvation outside of his own political church. President Fallières knows that there are many mansions under the blue sky of the republic. His Prime Minister may indulge as much as he wants in vicious thrusts at his opponents, whose blows, moreover, he receives with a merry chuckle, which it is impossible not to admire. These opponents may come to the Elysée Palace and be sure of being received with the same honest and good-natured smile that had congratulated the Minister upon his new display of his wonderfully witty vitality.

Such is the kind of President that France loves to have preside at the Elysée. He does not wield the big stick; he does not astonish the world by the kaleidoscopic changes of a many-sided personality, and he does not preach moral sermons. But the people feel that he is one of them. To the educated he is a lawyer of no mean acumen; to the masses a peasant farmer proud of the good conditions of his land in and around the modest southern village of Mazenc. They all feel a personal interest in him. They know that every law-abiding citizen has a friend in the head of the state, and while they blame the government for everything from the high taxation or the costly foreign policy down to the state of the weather and the poor condition of the crops they will absolve the President from any responsibility in their misfortunes.

THE FRENCH REPUBLIC A STABLE REALITY.

The writer of these lines can go back to a time when one of the most frequently discussed subjects was whether it would be possible for the French people to live under a republican régime. "Would," so the opponents of the republican solution argued, "the heads of the army ever have for a provincial lawyer, or for any politician of the same kind, the respect that must be felt for the head of the state?" They held for the theory of the hereditary ruler, protected by several centuries of illustrious ancestry, or for the theory of "the man on horseback." Go now to the Elysée on the night of an official reception and see the division and *corps d'armée* commanders surround the President and eagerly seek for an opportunity of engaging him in private conversation. Better still, go to Paris and on the Fourteenth of July follow the crowds that gather around the Longchamps race-court made famous by one of the Boulanger songs. See one regiment after another pass the Presidential stand, and decide whether any bejeweled hereditary uniform wearer presents a more impressive figure than the civilian who presides over the destinies of the republic when returning the salute of the armed force of the nation.

Years ago how impressively our royalist friends would declare it impossible for a French Republic to form any alliance with any of the old monarchies of Europe; how they would dwell on the almost ridiculous spectacle presented by Plain Mr. So-and-So hobnobbing with the wearers of century-old crowns. And now turn your eyes first toward London and watch the unmistakable cordiality of the greetings exchanged by the two true gentlemen who, one by hereditary right, the other by the choice of his countrymen, head the governments of France and England; then toward Berlin, and see the thoughtful look of the grandson of Emperor William I. and nephew of King Edward VII. Then you may say whether the republic has "made good," and you will exactly understand the place of the French Presidency among its institutions.

THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION OF WASHINGTON.

A Unique and Powerful Agency for the Advancement of Knowledge.

BY HERBERT T. WADE.

TO the great public the Carnegie Institution of Washington is little more than a name. Beyond the bare fact that it was founded for the advancement of knowledge, the aims and purposes of this great organization, the objects for which its funds are available, the methods by which those funds are expended, the special provinces of the domain of science in which its operations are conducted, are matters quite beyond the ken of the average newspaper-reading American. By the scientific world, however, the Carnegie Institution is recognized to-day as an important factor in the furtherance of scientific investigation and the general increase and dissemination of knowledge. While its work very largely involves abstruse scientific subjects, yet it is also of the greatest practical value, and represents the results of modern methods of study and research carried on with a view to the greatest possible efficiency. Indeed, the Carnegie Institution in science and letters represents modern business methods in so far as they aim at co-operation, system, economy, and efficiency, though of course there is no attempt to stifle competition or to supplant existing agencies for research and study, as might be found in commercial life.

While the scholar and investigator may once have boasted of his freedom and independence and ascribed discoveries to unaided and individual effort, it requires but little thought to realize that such conditions have passed away, and while genius and intellectual attainments accomplish as much as ever and are no less appreciated and respected, yet it must be admitted that to-day the advance of science and exact knowledge can be secured in large part only through such agencies as vast and special libraries and the accumulation of bibliographic data, by the lengthy search of hidden archives, by expeditions to distant or inaccessible regions, or by the construction of special laboratories or experimental plants often with elaborate apparatus and staffs of trained observers and experimenters. It is unnecessary to say that these all require not only large capital outlay and funds for maintenance as well as the co-operation of the workers in any given department of science or knowledge, but also in order to carry on the work economically as regards both expense and effort a thorough and efficient organization is essential.

The limitations in the material resources of the average scientist or scholar are usually most obvious, and often prevent him from carrying on work where costly experiment is essential or which must take him temporarily from other pursuits. Government scientific work, which is as valuable as it is extensive, must always be considered in some practical connection for which a distinct return, present or future, must result to the taxpayer from the use of the public funds. Finally, the educational institution, where naturally the greatest achievements in science have been scored, must properly and primarily be considered as a place for instruction, and the activities of its teachers should center on its students. It is for this object that the greater part of the endowment has been provided, and the research and investigation, which are now invariably carried on in such institutions and are considered most important, are in essence outside interests. While this statement may be open to dispute and might not apply to individual institutions or departments, yet it can be said that in few American institutions are the members of the teaching staff able to carry on lines of investigation and research in a way and to an extent which they are convinced will lead to the considerable advance of knowledge in some particular field.

In aiding individual workers of marked ability the Carnegie Institution now fills a great need. A university without students, it is able to take up certain lines of investigation or specific problems that seem to its trustees to promise results of importance, pay to the workers sufficient salaries

to maintain them and to supply them with suitable laboratories, proper instruments and apparatus, assistants, and other facilities. In other words, the investigator is concerned with no external cares or financial worries or responsibilities during the time he is working on any project under the auspices of the Institution. His original plan is passed on by the trustees and an appropriation is made after a careful consideration of the merits and other aspects of the matter. This of course applies to the more important divisions of the work of the Institution, as in addition there are various and numerous minor grants to individuals and undertakings.

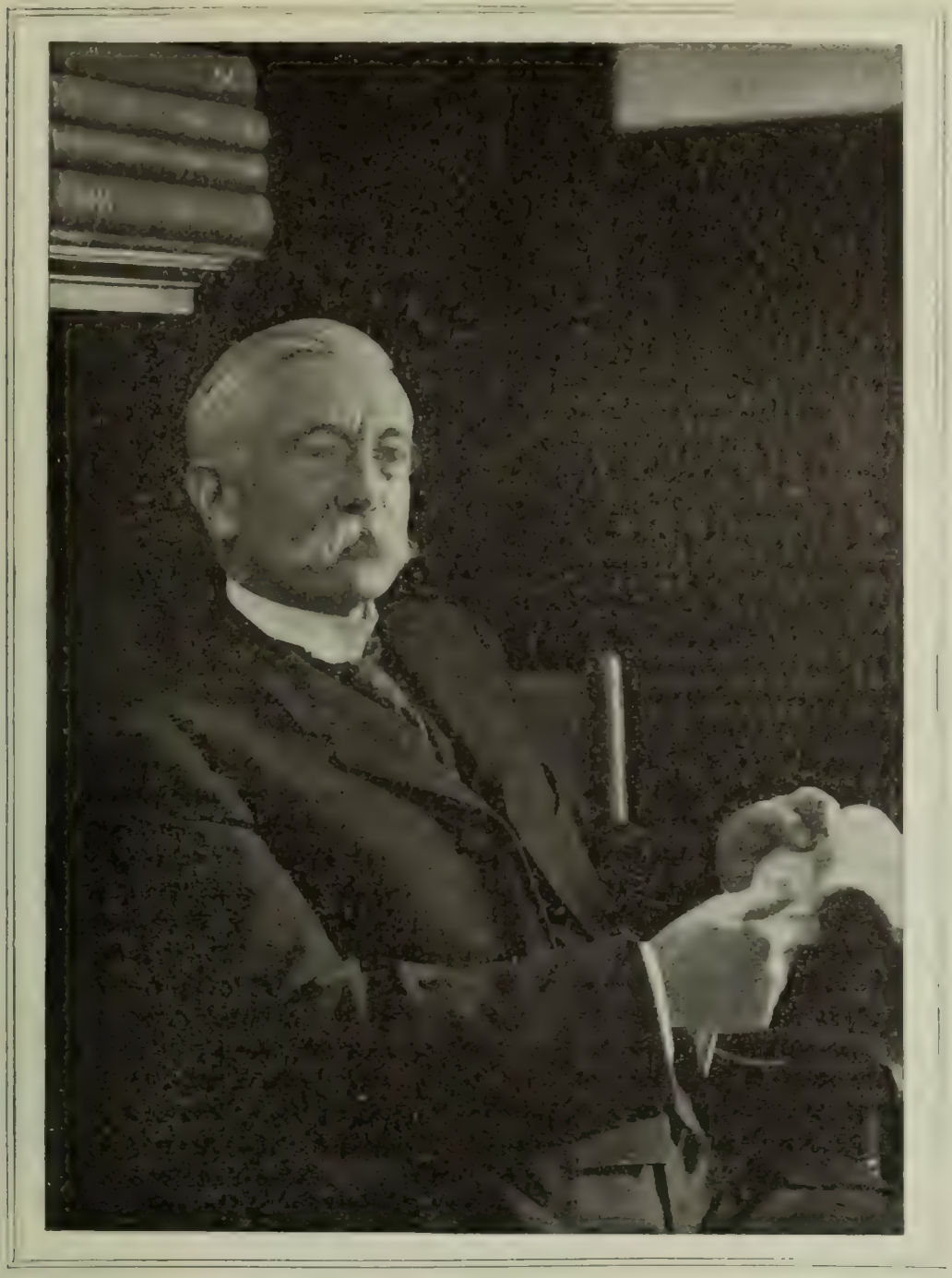
As the successful character of the work done by the Carnegie Institution has been due largely to its organization and administration, it is desirable to explain the method by which Mr. Carnegie's wishes are carried out so satisfactorily to him and to the scientific world in general. In 1902, at the time of the original gift of $10,000,000 to found the work, a board of trustees was selected and the Carnegie Institution was incorporated in the District of Columbia, Dr. Daniel C. Gilman, who then had but recently resigned from the presidency of the Johns Hopkins University, being made president. In 1904 the Carnegie Institution of Washington was duly incorporated by Congress, and this is now used as the corporate name of the organization. A general plan for its work was developed, and a beginning was made with some of the approved schemes. These involved, for the most part, grants to various investigators and enterprises.

On the resignation of Dr. Gilman, in 1904, Prof. Robert S. Woodward, dean of the faculty of pure science and professor of mechanics and mathematical physics at Columbia University, was called to the presidency. Dr. Woodward possessed the great advantage of an intimate knowledge of scientific work under the United States Government, as he had been a member of the United States Lake Survey, the United States Geological Survey, and the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey before taking up academic work. In this way he was able to appreciate the conditions of the scientific work of the Government, especially the advantages of its systematic organization and wide range, and also to realize the situation as it existed in the American universities, colleges, and scientific schools. Coming to the Institution with this varied experience Dr. Woodward has been able to place its different activities on a firm and practical basis, recommending to the trustees the best methods of establishing the various departments it had been decided to form.

For the successful prosecution of their work many of these departments required individual laboratories, observatories, or other extensive facilities. It was realized by the trustees that if a piece of scientific work not carried on elsewhere was worth doing, it was worth doing thoroughly, and the policy of furnishing adequate appropriations and the best material equipment was adopted, and this after several years of thorough test has proved most wise. The Carnegie Institution is in no way an eleemosynary organization, as its funds are expended with the definite purpose of securing direct results. It knows its means and restricts its work to what it can do effectively and to what no other agency stands ready to take up. The subjects for investigation have been chosen with the greatest care from the wide range of scientific activity and endeavor. Whatever work is done, so far as can be determined in advance by competent authority, must promise to result in a distinct addition to human knowledge.

In carrying out the purposes of the foundation the work, aside from its administration and the disbursements for publication, is classified in the main under what are termed large grants and minor grants. The large grants in many cases have involved the erection of special laboratory or observatory buildings or the provision of other facilities involving considerable outlay. The large grants in 1907 varied from $10,000 assigned to Mr. Luther Burbank for horticultural studies, to several of about $100,000 each for work in geophysics, nutrition, and solar physics, as special buildings were erected for each of these departments. A brief summary of the work done under each of the large grants and the organization of the separate departments will doubtless afford the best understanding of the activities of the Institution.

The Institution has its headquarters in Washington, and several of its most important departments are located in that city, but aside from its administration there is no consideration other than the specific needs of a given department or research in establishing it in any given locality. For purposes of administration and the issue and storage of publications a special building is being



PRESIDENT ROBERT S. WOODWARD, OF THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION.

constructed in Washington, but this will be a modest structure merely for these purposes, and will not be used as a laboratory or home of investigation. It is a three-story structure of gray limestone and bluestone, designed by Carrère & Hastings, of New York. It enjoys a pleasant location on the southeast corner of Sixteenth and P streets, N. W., and in addition to providing facilities for the administration of the Institution will contain committee-rooms and an auditorium for scientific lectures.

STUDYING PLANT LIFE IN THE DESERT.

Selected especially with a view to its specific use is the site of the Desert Botanical Laboratory at Tumamoc Hill, near Tucson, Ariz. This institution is interesting as being the only one of its kind, and early in the work of the Carnegie Institution its establishment was urged by American botanists who pointed out the many valuable results likely to be obtained from such a laboratory. There are many botanical laboratories and gardens in the humid portions of the temperate regions, as well as marine and tropical laboratories devoted in whole or in part to botanical research, but the location of such an institution in a desert region was never before attempted. It is possible, even for the layman, to realize that the adaptation of plants to desert conditions must present phe-

nomena that are among the most interesting and significant from the standpoint of evolution in the whole realm of botany, while of a distinctly practical nature is the information to be gained relative to the availability of the great arid regions of the West for special or even general agriculture, either with or without irrigation. The chief concern of this laboratory is to study the conditions of development, growth, distribution, migration, and variation of desert plants, and to carry on investigations that are for the most part too general in their nature for an agricultural experiment station, or so expensive and difficult that they are beyond its facilities in the way of equipment and staff. Once, however, the underlying knowledge has been derived by the botanists of the Institution, the data will be available for the agriculturalists and economic botanists to test and apply, so that from the desert laboratory and the experiment stations of the West great economic benefits should result.

The station was first located at Tucson in 1902 and conducted in a small way under the direction of a non-resident committee, but so important was the work considered that its scope was enlarged, and it now forms a special department of the Institution under the direction of Dr. D. T. MacDougal, formerly of the New York Botanical Garden. The site was acquired through the interest of the citizens of Tucson and the Territorial authorities, and consists of some 860 acres, with suitable laboratory buildings, greenhouse, etc. There are various gardens and plantations, including one which is irrigated, while nearby on the Santa Catalina Mountains are maintained Alpine plantations at altitudes of 6000 and 8000 feet. These different points enable the botanists not only to study the occurrence and distribution of various forms of flora, but to exchange the plants and perform other experiments to ascertain the effects of climate and other physical conditions. The scientific work includes not only the study of the vast wealth of flora of the desert region but also problems of a broader biological interest dealing with such matters as heredity, hybridization, and the production of new varieties, by the experimental study of pedigreed plants.

Scientific appreciation of the work of the department is evident from the fact that the edition of a publication descriptive of the North American deserts prepared by Messrs. Coville and MacDougal was soon exhausted, and the demand for it has been so great as to warrant provision for its republication with more recent data. As indicating how a well-organized scientific department of this kind is able to investigate extraordinary phenomena, mention may be made of the Salton Sea, a lake formed by the inflow of the Colorado River into a depressed basin in



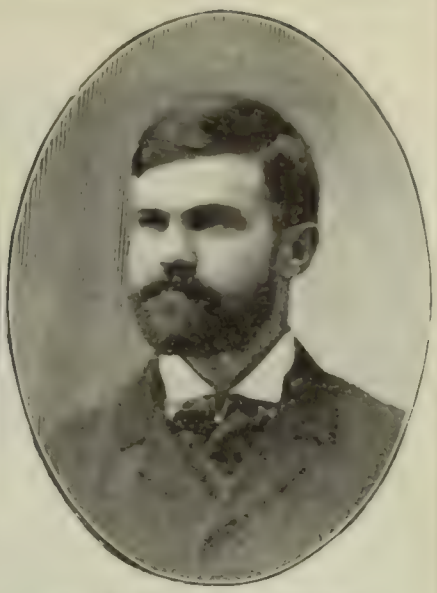
DESERT BOTANICAL LABORATORY IN ARIZONA, THE ONLY INSTITUTION OF ITS KIND IN THE WORLD.



DR. ARTHUR L. DAY.
(Geophysical Laboratory.)



DR. DANIEL T. MACDOUGAL.
(Desert Botanical Laboratory.)



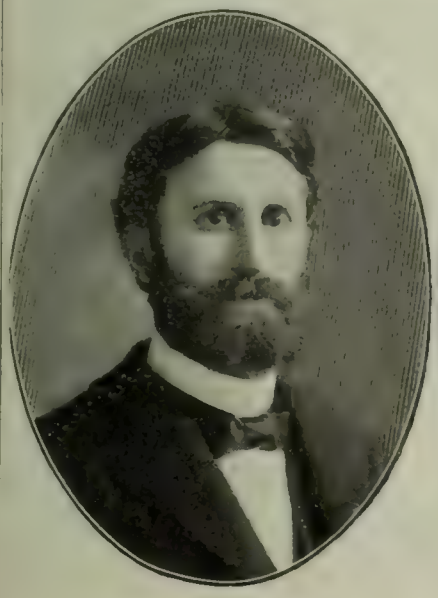
DR. FRANCIS G. BENEDICT.
(Nutrition Laboratory.)



DR. CARROLL D. WRIGHT.
(Economics and Sociology.)



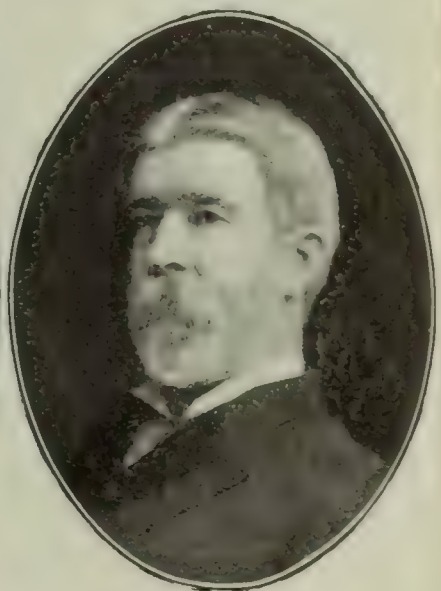
DR. J. FRANKLIN JAMESON.
(Historical Research.)



DR. L. A. BAUER.
(Terrestrial Magnetism.)



DR. GEORGE E. HALE.
(Mount Wilson Solar Observatory.)



DR. LEWIS BOSS.
(Meridian Astrometry.)

DIRECTORS OF DEPARTMENTS, THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION.

southern California. As this basin is below the sea level and will gradually be drained or evaporated, there will be a gradual uncovering of the land and an opportunity for the development of plant life on a large scale under somewhat extraordinary conditions on a certain form of soil. For some time the botanists of the Desert Laboratory have been making careful examintaions of the shores of the lake and their observations are of no small amount of interest.

LEARNING THE FACTS OF HEREDITY.

The Department of Experimental Evolution is actively engaged in studying the problems of heredity in plants and animals. At Cold Spring Harbor, Long Island, N. Y., is maintained a biological laboratory which includes a farm with greenhouses and stables for the plants and animals under observation. Here systematic breeding of various plants and animals is carried on and a certain number of strains whose progress can be watched and controlled have been started. An attempt is being made to determine by direct observation and experiment the characteristic relations, or laws, manifested in the complicated process of evolution in plants and animals. To the phenomena of heredity, hybridization, mutation, etc., are applied essentially the same quantitative methods that an astronomer would use in his study of the stars, or a chemist in his determination or analysis of an inorganic substance.

In many cases there are differences of opinion between practical breeders and some scientific investigators, and a demonstration under observation will serve to clear up disputed points. The situation of the laboratory is most suitable for just such work. The animals have pleasant pastures and houses, the gardens and greenhouses are ample for the plants, while both fresh and salt water border on the property. Nearby is the biological station of the Brooklyn Institute, where many students spend their summers working on biological problems, while the proximity of Cold Spring Harbor to New York City makes it accessible for many visiting scientists from Europe, as for example, Prof. Hugo De Vries, who was present and delivered an address on the occasion of the formal opening in 1904. In this connection mention might be made of work done in connection with the New York Botanical Garden, whose library and facilities can be employed by the investigators, not to mention those of the various educational institutions and libraries in and near New



UNIQUE STATION FOR EXPERIMENTAL EVOLUTION AT COLD SPRING HARBOR, NEW YORK.

(Showing the farm, animal runs, and laboratory.)



MARINE BIOLOGICAL LABORATORY AT TORTUGAS, SHOWING DOCK AND AQUARIUM.

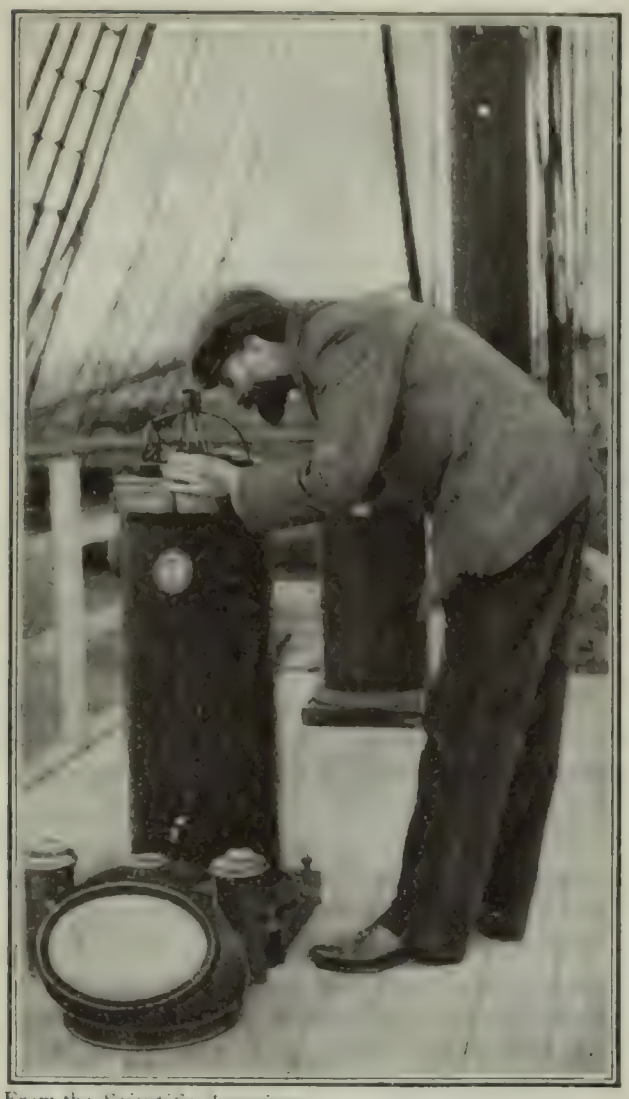
York. The investigations of this department naturally are arranged to spread over considerable periods of time, depending on the breeding of the various plants and animals, but systematic and periodical reports of the various investigations are published and also any discoveries of interest that are brought out in the course of the work. The director and chief investigator is Dr. Charles B. Davenport, who previously held a professorship of zoology in the University of Chicago.

MARINE BIOLOGICAL WORK.

Another instance of a location specially adapted to the particular scientific inquiry in hand is the Marine Biological Laboratory at Tortugas, on an island off the Florida coast. Here the water is very pure, and the situation is so isolated that there is no interference from local fisheries, while in addition there is an abundance of animal life and the station is most healthy for a tropical location. To this laboratory, which is under the direction of Prof. Alfred G. Mayer, various biologists from different parts of the world are invited during the spring and summer seasons, and every opportunity is given for collection and study, special facilities being afforded to study the pelagic life of the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea, especially that of the tropical Gulf Stream. Dr. Robert Hartmayer, of the Berlin Zoölogical Museum, in 1907 spent two months at the station, and in addition to a general study of the marine fauna of the reefs devoted considerable time to the collection and study of ascidians. Other investigators were present during the summer from leading American universities and museums, each of whom was specially selected and invited for his interest in some specific problem and for his skill as an investigator. The results of several seasons' work have been a series of most valuable monographs, now in course of publication, which already have given considerable reputation to the department. During the summer season, when the work is carried on, the investigators are housed in portable houses, and when not at sea are able to carry on laboratory research in the tropics under most favorable conditions.

SUPPORT OF LUTHER BURBANK'S EXPERIMENTS.

In no phase of practical horticulture has more interest, both general and scientific, been aroused than in the wonderful work of Mr. Luther Burbank in improving various fruits and flowers and breeding new varieties. It was but natural that the Carnegie Institution should further this work in every way in its power, and accordingly Mr. Burbank has been the recipient of a grant of $10,000 a year to aid him in original and new lines of experimentation, while at the same time facilities are provided for the scientific record of his experiments and their examination by members of the departments of Botanical Research and Experimental Evolution. In this way when the final record of this remarkable work is published it will be complete from the standpoint of biological theory and evolution as well as horticultural practice, and the application of these experiments to questions of general biology will be clearly indicated.



From the *Scientific American.*

DIRECTOR BAUER MAKING TRIAL MAGNETIC OBSERVATIONS ON SHIPBOARD.

(Horizontal force instrument devised by the Department of Terrestrial Magnetism.)

INVESTIGATING THE EARTH'S PROBLEMS.

Just as the study of the evolution of plant and animal life affords wide scope to the activities of the naturalist, so the study of the earth presents many problems to the geologist. Many of these involve the application of pure physics and pure chemistry to the study of data supplied by geology, and accordingly with that specialization characteristic of modern science there has sprung up a science to which the name of geophysics has been applied.

The problems of the earth involve large masses and large epochs of time, so that the experimental work has to be performed under special conditions. Thus in studying such subjects as the heat of the earth, the action of air and water on minerals, the solution of minerals, the conditions under which they tend to combine, and the flow of rocks, —to mention only a few of the problems,— there is required considerable apparatus for producing extreme temperatures and pressures, and much experimental research. In other words the purpose of a geophysical laboratory is to supply a firm scientific foundation for the study of the past history and present condition of the earth. Along these lines considerable isolated work had been done both by workers in the United States Geological Survey in its division of chemical and physical research, and in individual and university laboratories in Europe and America, but there was no single institute of large resources devoted to geophysics until such a laboratory was determined on by the Carnegie Institution of Washington. Accordingly the Institution, while at first providing for work to be done in the laboratory of the United States Geological Survey at Washington by Dr. George F. Becker and Dr. Arthur L. Day, and by Prof. Frank D. Adams at McGill University, Montreal, determined to erect a special laboratory in Washington, and this building, which is located on an isolated hill in the suburbs, was completed and occupied last year. It stands near the National Bureau of Standards, and is a brick structure of three stories, costing with its equipment about $150,000. So complete is the laboratory that not only is the geophysical work of the Institution under the direction of Dr. Arthur L. Day most efficiently carried on, but assistance is rendered to Dr. George F. Becker of the United States Geological Survey in his researches on the elasticity and plasticity of rocks and minerals.

TERRESTRIAL MAGNETISM.

Another scientific department of the Carnegie Institution and one that has met with some popular as well as much scientific approbation is the department of Research in Terrestrial Magnetism. While this department, of which Dr. L. A. Bauer is the director, has its headquarters in Washington, yet its principal laboratory has been a sailing vessel, in which since 1905 magnetic observations have been made over a large part of the Pacific Ocean. These have been reduced and forwarded to Washington, where they have been computed, and the results obtained and turned over to the Hydrographic Office of the United States Navy have made possible a new magnetic chart which contains far more accurate magnetic information about the Pacific Ocean and supplants charts where the magnetic values

often were so inaccurate as to involve positive danger to the mariner. In addition, magnetic surveys of land areas in distant and inaccessible places have been carried on, while a beginning has been made of a magnetic survey of Africa. This department aims at a complete magnetic survey of the earth and the co-ordination of the magnetic data obtained through various agencies into a mass of information for the use of students of magnetism.* With this work is coupled also research in atmospheric electricity, the magnetic observers while at sea making observations of the latter phenomena also.

ASTRONOMICAL RESEARCH.

The extent of territory that Professor Woodward has to cover in his inspection of the various laboratories and observatories of the Carnegie Institution can be appreciated, when we pass from Dry Tortugas to Albany, N. Y., which is the headquarters of the Department of Meridian Astrometry. This work, which is under the direction of Dr. Lewis Boss, of the Dudley Observatory, involves the measurement and determining the positions of the stars in the heavens. A catalogue is being prepared of the position of all stars from the brightest to those of the seventh magnitude. The first stage in this work was the recent completion of a preliminary catalogue of star positions, containing the positions of over 6000 stars. While much astronomical work has been done in the Northern Hemisphere, the Southern has been proportionately neglected, though the few observatories in this part of the world are conspicuous for the quantity and quality of their work. But as can be seen readily, the number of observations to determine the motion and positions of stars in the Southern Hemisphere has been much smaller, and accordingly the Institution proposes to send to South America and install in a temporary observatory the telescope, or rather the meridian instrument, which has been used at Albany and whose characteristics are so well known to the observers. With this instrument a series of observations will be made and they will be reduced and added to the catalogue now being compiled. While the publication of a vast amount of astronomical data and calculation does not seem a work susceptible of arousing wide interest, yet it is a matter of considerable importance for its bearing not only on astronomical science, but on navigation, geography, and geodesy, where accurate determination of a point on the earth's surface must be made by observations of celestial bodies. Furthermore, the material that is being collected is most valuable in the study of stellar motion and for the working astronomer in his study and survey of the heavens.

OBSERVING THE SUN FROM MT. WILSON.

Astronomical observatories from their organization and equipment or the tendencies of their directors often become famous for some particular line of work and it is usually along these lines that their activities are developed. It was the conviction of astronomers that an observatory devoted essentially to the study of the sun would furnish valuable and interesting results, that induced the Carnegie Institution to provide for such work. The direction of the undertaking was placed in the hands of Prof. George E. Hale, formerly of the Yerkes Observatory of the University of Chicago, and after a careful examination of possible sites it was decided to erect the observatory on the summit of Mt. Wilson, California, at an elevation of about 6000 feet, and eight miles in a direct



COELOSTAT AND SECOND MIRROR OF THE SNOW TELESCOPE AT THE MOUNT WILSON SOLAR OBSERVATORY.

*See article on "The Magnetic Work of the Carnegie Institution," REVIEW OF REVIEWS for March, 1908.



VERTICAL COELOSTAT OR TOWER TELESCOPE OF THE MOUNT WILSON SOLAR OBSERVATORY.

line from Pasadena and east of Los Angeles. The Mt. Wilson atmosphere is of high quality for both stellar and solar work, and the rainy season affords but slight interruption to the observations and photography. The various buildings necessary for the instruments and the observers have been erected at the top of the mountain, to which it was necessary to construct a special road for wagons and a motor truck to carry the instruments. The Mt. Wilson Solar Observatory, it must be remembered, is not a permanent general astronomical observatory, but has been designed and erected specially to attack certain problems. The sun, which it is proposed to study, is a star, and it happens to be a star sufficiently near the earth to permit of a study being made of its physical constitution. As the next nearest star is almost 300,000 times more distant than the sun the reason for the study of our main luminary is apparent.

The sun is now almost constantly under observation from various parts of the earth, and astronomers under a national agreement are recording by photography its appearance and its spectrum. Thus at Mt. Wilson daily observations are being made with the photoheliograph and the spectroheliograph, and the negatives are being measured and studied by the observatory staff. It must be borne in mind that modern spectroscopic work must be done in special laboratories where the instruments are mounted on massive piers to avoid vibration and elaborate precautions must be taken to keep the apparatus at a constant temperature. Accordingly in the main spectroscopic telescope we have the tube mounted horizontally in a north and south direction and a plane mirror driven by clockwork used to reflect the light to the lens. One special aim of the observatory is to study by reflecting telescopes of large size problems that previously have been considered in the light of observations made by refractors. With a large reflector not only is there greater illumination but there is no loss by chromatic aberration, and consequently these instruments are especially adapted to study the problems of stellar evolution. The work of the Mt. Wilson observatory can be summarized as dealing with three great problems: the study of solar radiation, the study of the constitution of the sun, and the problem of the evolution of stars from nebulæ. Not yet erected are the 60 and 100 inch reflecting telescopes which are to be perhaps the most important parts of the instrumental equipment.

EFFICIENCY TEST OF THE HUMAN POWER PLANT.

When a few years ago the late Prof. W. O. Atwater began his interesting experiments with the calorimeter and human subjects in order to ascertain the amount of energy that was derived from food of various kinds, it was realized that a field of investigation of great importance had been opened up, but at the same time one that required a large amount of patient and laborious research and analysis. This work carried on in the chemical laboratory of Wesleyan University received some aid from the United States Department of Agriculture, but its possibilities appeared so great that it commended itself to the Carnegie Institution, and for several years it has received substantial support from that organization. It was determined to establish a nutrition laboratory in a special building designed for this purpose. In order to study nutrition problems from as many sides as possible, it

was essential that the proposed laboratory should be near a hospital, and accordingly it was located in Boston near the new Harvard University Medical School, on land purchased from the Harvard Corporation. The building, which has recently been completed, represents, with the ground on which it stands, an outlay of about $100,000, in addition to the apparatus which is now being installed. The nature of the experiments involves the confinement of a person in a calorimeter or enclosed compartment for a given period and measuring the carbon dioxide, water vapor, and heat given off by the subject, as well as the food consumed and the nature of the resulting products. All of this represents a vast amount of chemical analysis, but the results are most practical and helpful. Prof. F. G. Benedict, who is the director of the nutrition laboratory, has recently applied the calorimetric method to pathological as well as normal subjects and his investigations promise to aid materially medical science. His tests with men can be likened to the efficiency test of a power plant where fuel supplied and its cost are compared with the power produced. In other words, the mechanical efficiency of the human organism is determined and the food or fuel best calculated to increase its efficiency is ascertained. In addition to work with the respiration calorimeter, Prof. R. H. Chittenden and Prof. L. B. Mendel are working on problems of physiological chemistry, while Prof. T. B. Osborne of the Connecticut Agricultural Experiment Station has been studying the chemistry of vegetable proteid foodstuffs.

PROMOTION OF HISTORICAL STUDIES.

Different departments of research of course require widely different methods, and the encouragement of the study of history naturally would take a different form from that given to experimental science. A special building in no way would serve the cause of historical research, while an adequate historical library to be of use to historians generally and containing not only standard and special works but original documents and authorities would be as impracticable as it would be beyond even the resources of a Carnegie foundation. Accordingly the plan determined on was the preparation of a comprehensive series of catalogues of documents and other sources for the use of historians and investigators in American history. In other words, the student of any particular epoch or event can determine the material available in various archives, its nature and its location, without spending valuable time in the examination of State documents and other collections. Nor is only material in the United States included in these catalogues, for several octavo volumes dealing with foreign archives have been prepared, and the archives of France and Mexico are being canvassed for available material. Particularly important work also has been done in cataloguing the various archives of Great Britain.

The Department of Historical Research has also made considerable progress in arranging for publication various American manuscript documents, such as the letters of delegates to the Old Congress, 1774-1789, and arranging for or assisting in the publication of various British parliamentary and other records. Evidence of the close connection maintained by the Department of Historical Research of the Carnegie Institution with American historians generally is shown by the fact that the *American Historical Review* is edited by Prof. J. Franklin Jameson, director of the department, and by the great assistance furnished various historical societies and individuals in ascertaining the presence of useful and available material in the various libraries and archives of the city of Washington. Indeed, the idea of making the Carnegie Institution a center and clearing-house for the American historical profession led to the selection of Washington as the headquarters of the Department of Historical Research, and the assistance it has been able to render to working historians and the success of its efforts seem to have justified the choice. It has also published a "Guide to the Archives of the Government of the United States in Washington," which proved so successful as to warrant its compilers, Prof. Claude Van Tyne and Mr. Waldo G. Leland, in preparing an enlarged and revised edition.

ECONOMIC RESEARCH.

Turning now to an adjacent field of research, we find that the Department of Economics and Sociology is engaged under the direction of Dr. Carroll D. Wright, president of Clark College, Worcester, Mass., in the systematic collection of material to form the basis of an economic history of the United States. This work in 1907 occupied the attention of 185

different individuals, the department as a whole being divided into twelve sections or divisions, each under the direction of a competent and responsible authority who supervises various researches made by separate specialists. In addition to this work the department is engaged in compiling an index of economic material in State documents which promises to be of unusual value, and is being issued in separate volumes, one for each State. A number of these volumes have been printed, while others are in press. The monographs of the various specialists are being considered quite as much in their relation to a harmonious whole as minute and exhaustive discussions on a particular subject. Already a number of these contributions have been published as books, in the transactions of learned societies, or in economic journals, and have been received with universal commendation. As a result of these studies the student or legislator of the near future will find summarized and digested for his use a wealth of carefully selected and written material dealing with the economic and industrial development of the United States.

VARIOUS CONTRIBUTIONS TO LEARNING.

The allotments made for these large grants during 1907 represented $519,785.70, and the total outlay on these projects since the foundation of the Institution has aggregated $1,356,185.70. The minor grants are by no means inconsiderable either in number or amount. In 1907 the allotments made aggregated $82,538.61, while the total amount allotted since the foundation of the Institution has amounted to $784,678.21. The allotments on these minor projects and research associates and assistants have been decreased annually since 1904, when the total amounted to $265,820.68, as it is now the policy of the Institution to concentrate its efforts on a small number of large projects rather than on a large number of small projects. Both plans have been tested, and superior results secured from the larger grants have largely influenced the trustees in this decision. Many of the minor grants, however, have produced most valuable additions to scientific knowledge and the list of publications describing the various researches is already quite formidable.

The general range is even wider than that of the major projects, as in addition to natural and physical science, history and economics, literary, philological, and archeological investigations are included. Thus in literature a research on the Arthurian Romances based on manuscripts in the British and other museums by H. O. Sommer is now in progress, while a reproduction of "The Old Yellow Book," the source of Browning's "The Ring and the Book," with translation and annotations by Prof. Charles W. Hodell, is in course of publication. In philology a lexicon to the works of Chaucer by Dr. Ewald Flügel has been compiled and is now being edited for the press. In archeology grants are made annually to the American schools for classical studies at Athens and in Rome, and the funds so allotted are used for the support of fellowships and for excavation and publication.

Applied science also benefits under the Institution and Prof. W. F. M. Goss, formerly of Purdue University, has carried on a series of researches dealing with the use of high pressure steam in the locomotive, while W. F. Durand, formerly of Cornell University, has made an elaborate investigation of the performance of the screw propeller. The Institution is also publishing the records of the California State Earthquake Investigation Commission, which give a thorough and scientific account and analysis of this remarkable occurrence. Among its other notable publications are a treatise on dynamic meteorology and hydrology by Prof. V. Bjerknes and Mr. J. W. Sandström of the University of Christiania, typical of a scientific work of high value for meteorologists, and a series of volumes dealing with Research in China carried on by Mr. Bailey Willis of the United States Geological Survey and other scholars on a special expedition to the East. Mention might also be made of notable volumes containing archeological and physiographical results of explorations in Turkestan under the direction of Prof. Raphael Pumpelly, and monographs on the Fossil Turtles of North America by Dr. O. P. Hay, and on Seal Cylinders of Western Asia by Dr. William Hayes Ward. A most elaborate work on the Fundamental Problems of Geology has been in course of preparation for four or five years by Prof. T. C. Chamberlain of the University of Chicago, while several important papers dealing with researches on Atomic Weights by Prof. T. W. Richards of Harvard University have been published by the Institution. The Institution also encourages biological research by supporting two tables at the Naples Zoological Station,

which is a favorite and most stimulating laboratory for biological investigators.

This incomplete list of minor projects must be closed with reference to the "Index Medicus," an index to current medical literature throughout the world issued yearly from Washington. This work, originally published at the Army Medical Museum in Washington, was esteemed most highly by the medical profession, but was discontinued on account of lack of financial support. Its resumption and the publication of a new volume for 1903 was one of the first efforts of the Carnegie Institution, and annual grants of about $12,500 make possible its yearly publication in enlarged and more comprehensive form.

By no means the least of the activities of the Carnegie Institution is its publication of scientific works. In 1907 this involved the expenditure of $65,358.99 and represented thirty-eight volumes with 3428 quarto pages and 6284 octavo pages. All of the publications of the Institution are supplied gratuitously to a limited list of the principal libraries of the world, and in that way are made generally accessible. Other copies, however, are sold at the cost of production and transportation. Great pains are taken in the selection of paper for these publications as well as in the presswork of both text and illustrations.

The outline just given will indicate in a measure what use the Carnegie Institution of Washington is making of its endowment of twelve million dollars to carry out the purpose of the founder to advance science and thus aid mankind. Whatever may have been the fears of scientists and educators as to the practical usefulness of such a fund for the furtherance of science administered by a board of trustees, it is now universally admitted that the Institution is on a firm and most efficient basis, that its plans are most rational and likely to produce good results, that its laboratories, observatories, and other equipment either in operation or soon to be at work represent the best possible facilities for dealing with specific problems of general scientific interest, and finally that the results obtained so far as published demonstrate that the work has been of a high order of merit. With the encouragement afforded by the Carnegie Institution the present brilliant work of America's best scientists should be carried on under more favorable conditions, and the discoveries bound to result should be such as to win world-wide recognition. Then the names of other American men of science will be inscribed with that of Professor Michelson on the roll of those deemed worthy to receive Nobel prizes and equivalent honors.



A VIEW OF THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION MAGNETIC SURVEY YACHT, "GALILEE," SHOWING SPECIAL OBSERVING BRIDGE AND INSTRUMENTS.

A PRACTICAL CAMPAIGN FOR SMOKE PREVENTION.

BY GEORGE H. CUSHING.

SMOKE prevention, complete combustion, or the scientific burning of coal,—whatever you will,—is rapidly becoming a necessity in cities, and a much-desired consummation among manufacturing concerns. It is a necessity in cities which have a municipal standard to maintain. It is desired by manufacturers because it contains possibilities of marvelous reductions in fuel cost.

"Smoke prevention" here is used instead of "smoke consumption," differentiating the new method from the old. Formerly the belief was that smoke-making was unavoidable, the only way to keep it from besmirching a city being to catch and burn the gases in the stack. Modern science shifts the center of activity to the firebox, burns the gases before they form into smoke, and then turns this to account in reducing the fuel bill.

Actuated by a desire for clean cities, the East, some years ago, enacted ordinances which virtually made anthracite coal or coke the only permitted fuel. The West aped the East, and the supply of anthracite would not go around, so all sections took to a grade of bituminous coal known generically as "Smokeless" and specifically as "George's Creek," "Oceanic," "Pocahontas," or "New River." The increasing demand and the limited production made prices almost prohibitive to the generality of buyers. Between the scarcity of coals and the demand for clean cities the citizens had an uneasy year or two, and then they began to study smoke prevention in the use of the lower grades of coal. The movement began in the West, where difficulties were greatest,—the smoke most dense, the demand for clean cities most keen, and the price of smokeless coal the highest. New York and the East are turning over the same subject, because they know that, with the rapidly increasing population and the equally rapid growth of manufacturing industries, anthracite and the smokeless bituminous coals will not long supply the demand. Moreover, these coals will not last always, the end of some grades being already predicted as near. The East has demanded that there shall be no let-down in municipal cleanliness, and while the supply of coals that make no smoke is growing shorter, the prevention of smoke with the use of lower-grade coals is becoming an absolute necessity.

The methods employed toward the desired end have been legislative, so far, rather than educational. The American disposition to express its wish by the stilted phraseology of the statute has been indulged with freedom amounting almost to profligacy. At the same time popular enlightenment has been conspicuous for its paucity. The past tense has here been used wittingly, for a dawn of better methods is at hand, due to the cleverness of Paul P. Bird, smoke inspector for smoke-begrimed and smoke-besmudged Chicago. Chicago is a horror of horrors as far as smoke consumption is concerned, being the dumping-ground of the nation, and consequently having to consume almost every variety of coal from anthracite to lignite. Moreover, in Chicago political intriguing has held sway, and if under these adverse conditions Mr. Bird can do anything for the betterment of conditions he will command a medal from Congress as being a national benefactor.

Mr. Bird has assumed that even a blue law does not enforce itself and that a fine will not correct ignorance. He has even gone so far as to admit,—a marvelous thing in administration,—that no general rule can be laid down for burning coal without smoke. Where the grades consumed range all the way from anthracite to bituminous high in sulphur, like that produced in Illinois, he has taken what appears to be the very sensible position that the best course is to study the individual conditions in the steam-making plant, mapping out a plan for each offender who desires to comply with the public will, and then give time for compliance. If after that there is any stubbornness the courts are called upon and the law is invoked.

COMPLETE COMBUSTION MEANS SMOKE PREVENTION.

Smoke prevention, which has been smothered in scientific phraseology, is not such an impossible thing after all. It means nothing

more than the complete burning of fuel, mainly the combustion of the elements in a fuel liberated at different times and at varying degrees of temperature. The so-called smokeless coal is made up mainly of one element, while the smokiest coal is composed of several elements, all of which burn under vastly dissimilar conditions. Between the extremes there are all possible grades of coal and all possible degrees of smoke. To prevent the higher grade of coal from smoking is no trick at all. To prevent the lower, or even the lowest, grade of coal is a matter only of conforming conditions to meet the demands of the most difficult elements in the coal to make burn.

Broadly speaking, all coal is made up of five elements,—viz., fixed carbon, volatile matter or gas, moisture, sulphur, and ash. The higher the grade of coal the larger the percentage of fixed carbon. (Fixed carbon is used here to distinguish the most stable part of the coal from the carbon contained in volatile matter or gas.) Because fixed carbon will not smoke and is easier to burn, it has become customary, in this country, to grade coal according to the amount of fixed carbon it contains. Thus, anthracite coal is generally conceded to be the highest grade in existence, because normally it contains from 90 to 95 per cent., usually about 92½ per cent., of fixed carbon. The other 5 or 10 per cent. is made up of volatile matter, of moisture, of sulphur, and of ash, the percentage of the latter being very small indeed. The next higher grade of coal is called semi-bituminous, and ranges from 70 to 85 per cent. in fixed carbon. Below that is bituminous coal, which ranges anywhere from 40 to 75 or 80 per cent. in fixed carbon, and below bituminous are sub-bituminous and lignite coals, the latter being little more than condensed gas. Aside from the moisture, sulphur, and ash contained in these coals, all of a lump of coal, whether it be lignite or anthracite, will burn under proper conditions. The only question is to find a method of bringing those elements up to a point where ignition takes place.

DIFFICULTY IN CONSUMING THE VOLATILE MATTER.

As far as smoke prevention is concerned, the only troublesome problem is burning the volatile matter. This is variously composed, comprising mainly, however, hydro-carbons, or a compound of hydrogen and carbon, and carbon-dioxide, or a compound of one part of carbon to two parts of oxygen. It has been found that the hydro-carbons will distill from or leave the coal at a temperature of about 500 degrees F., while the carbon-dioxide will be distilled from the coal at a temperature of between 500 and 600 degrees F. It has been found also that, provided there is a proper mixture of air of equal temperature, this volatile matter will reach a state of combustion at anywhere from 600 to 750 degrees, this depending mainly on the facility with which air of equal temperature is mixed with these gases. It is found, however, that fixed carbon requires a temperature of from 850 to 900 degrees before it reaches a state of combustion. Given, therefore, a coal high in volatile matter and comparatively low in fixed carbon, a very large percentage of the burnable elements in a lump of coal can be thrown off into the air, without any of it being burned, by simply raising the temperature of the lump of coal to a point where this volatile matter will be distilled, but keeping the temperature of the fixed carbon itself below the point of ignition. In fact, this is in reality the principle upon which gas is made from a coal high in volatile matter.

There is hardly a household in the United States which has not seen the demonstration of this scientific principle of coal consumption, but possibly without realizing the importance of the demonstration. In starting a fire in an ordinary grate it is very often seen that a pile of bituminous coal thrown upon a burning pile of kindling-wood will give off a dense black smoke before any blaze appears in the coal. This merely indicates that the heavy hydro-carbons are escaping from the coal without being burned. It is a reasonable assumption that if the temperature of this grate were taken at the time it would be below 600 degrees. As the temperature in the grate naturally rises, there is occasionally seen a flash of flame in the smoke, but several inches above the coal bed. It is an uncertain flickering fire that seems to have no foundation at all and, under ordinary circumstances, would be very hard to explain. Very often this flash of flame will appear for an instant and then disappear, only to reappear again after a few seconds, this time to last longer, and then die out again, to appear in more permanent form a little later on. The observer will notice, however, if his attention is called to it, that each time this flame appears it gets nearer and nearer to the bed of coals, and finally,

when the flame becomes permanent, it has formed a juncture practically with the coal itself. This is nothing more than the first appearance and subsequent development of the combustion of this escaping volatile matter from the coal.

When the flame eventually makes a connection with the coal pile, and especially when it appears to come from the center of the coal pile, any one taking the temperature would find that the thermometer registered at least 850 degrees F., which shows that the fixed carbon in the coal had reached a state of ignition. The observer of a grate-fire will also notice that as the flame increases the volume of smoke gradually diminishes. He will also notice that the smoke disappears almost completely when the bed of coals has been reduced to a glowing mass. This is accounted for possibly in two ways: One of them probably is that the volatile matter has escaped and consequently that the only part of the coal left to be consumed is the fixed carbon, or it might indicate that the temperature in the grate and the temperature of the room had been raised to a point where the air mixing with the volatile matter permitted its consumption concurrently with the consumption of the fixed carbon.

Under these circumstances, smoke prevention, or, if you care to phrase it thus, the complete combustion of the coal, resolves itself into a necessity to raise the temperature of the gas to a point of ignition, whether the fire be "fresh" or "old." To this is added the necessity to give room enough for the mixing of this gas with sufficient air, the gases and the oxygen being of equal temperature, that combustion may be accomplished.

BUSINESS ECONOMY IN SMOKE PREVENTION.

Assuming that in the case of the grate-fire the smoke did not cease to appear until the volatile matter had entirely escaped, it can easily be seen that the prevention of smoke becomes at once a matter of tremendous importance to a concern which burns an enormous amount of coal per day. Take, for instance, the case of the Commonwealth Edison Company, of Chicago, which is now, I believe, burning in the neighborhood of 2000 tons of coal per day. Another example can be found in the big ocean steamers, which, according to the last report, burn about 1000 tons of coal a day. If these big coal consumers purchased a low-grade coal which was high in volatile matter, and used fire-hold methods which would permit all of this volatile matter to go off in the form of smoke, it is very easy to see that they could lose anywhere from 25 to 60 per cent. of their coal through the smokestack without getting a particle of benefit from it. This coal will cost delivered anywhere from $2 to $4 or $5 a ton, and consequently the loss can be anywhere from $1 to $2.50 or $3 per ton. It is a simple case of arithmetic to multiply this loss by the amount of coal consumed per day to arrive at a conclusion as to how much money the big coal consumers are permitting to fly off into the air from the smokestack, and how much it would mean to a concern of this kind if it were permitted to burn all of this volatile matter and consequently avoid this tremendous loss.

This, of course, does not take into consideration the irreparable damage that is done to the household furniture, to valuable tapestries and libraries, and to the public health by these poisonous gases being discharged into the air which is admitted into the homes and into the human lungs. It was not consideration for the public health or consideration for other people's property which caused the manufacturing concerns to begin the study of the complete combustion of coal. The best ideas which have been introduced and which have been made practicable were given their first complete test, as far as Chicago is concerned, in the plant of the Commonwealth Edison Company at the Harrison Street Station in Chicago. The plan was worked out by A. Bement, a mechanical engineer, and by W. L. Abbott, the engineer in charge of these electrical lighting plants. The design of the firebox and the location of the boilers were arrived at after a prolonged series of experiments based upon this simple principle: It takes a certain amount of space between the bed of the fire and the boiler for this volatile matter or gas to be completely consumed. When the experiments were started Mr. Bement and Mr. Abbott did not have a very clear idea as to whether this space was demanded to raise the temperature of the gas or to prevent the mixture of the gas and air. In fact, they are not quite sure which of these necessities govern, and on that point the engineers of the United States are at variance. However, expert engineers abroad, especially in England, have reached the conclusion that the raising of the temperature of gas is the first essential, while the proper mixture of air is the second. This idea was brought to this country by an engi-

neer of a different school from Mr. Bement and Mr. Abbott,—viz., by Dr. R. S. Moss, who has participated in numerous experiments of this kind in London and Edinburgh.

MORE SPACE BETWEEN FIRE AND BOILER.

But whatever the scientific principle behind this complete combustion of the volatile matter, the plan adopted by Mr. Bement and Mr. Abbott was to give a certain amount of space, not less than nine feet, between the fire-grate, or the place where the coal is burning, and the surface of the boiler. Whether temperature has anything to do with the burning of this volatile matter or not, it is very clearly established that if this volatile matter has not reached the stage of combustion before it comes in contact with the comparatively cool surface of the boiler tubes, it will never reach a state of combustion, but will pass off through the flue in the form of smoke. Where a boiler-room equipment will permit of it, it is a simple matter to raise the boiler at least seven feet above the bed of the coals, and thus, by giving plenty of room for the mixture of air with the volatile matter, smoke will be practically impossible after the fire has once been started; but often buildings are so constructed that there is no possibility of giving this amount of room between the fire-grate and the boiler, and consequently other devices have to be adopted.

Mr. Bement and Mr. Abbott decided that longitude was as good as altitude, and so they placed the fire near the front end of the boiler and permitted the gas to pass backward under the boiler, but this was prevented from coming in contact with the cool surface by lining the under portion of the boiler with a fireproof tile which would absorb and retain heat much more easily than would the tubes of the boiler in which cold water was constantly circulating. In the case of the Commonwealth Edison plant at Harrison Street in Chicago fully fourteen feet has been given between the front of the firebox and the point where the volatile matter comes in contact with the cool surface of the boiler. This plan has worked admirably, and although, as stated, this company burns about 2000 tons of coal per day, there is never seen, at any time, the slightest bit of smoke coming from any one of the stacks of the central power station. Dr. Moss has obtained equally satisfactory results by using what is called a Dutch oven. This is merely an ordinary oven arrangement the lining of which can be heated, and into which the volatile matter is discharged, where the temperature is raised and where the gas is mixed with air, and where the complete combustion takes place, the heat passing from that to the boiler pipes, where it is used in raising the temperature of the water.

This whole matter is more or less technical and consequently has required a good deal of study, as is shown by the fact that even the expert engineers are not in accord as to what produces complete combustion. When the engineers cannot agree, it is very natural that the men employed in the fire-room, especially the unskilled laborer, could not be expected to understand the principles of complete combustion, and consequently when a city tries to prevent smoke it is running up against almost insuperable difficulties. These difficulties increase when it is realized that popular ideas heretofore have been very vague as to what actually caused smoke. Moreover, it must be realized that the vast majority of our buildings were constructed before this scientific principle governing the burning of coal was a demonstrated possibility. Naturally when the architects who designed these buildings had no idea that a certain amount of space was required between the firebox and the boiler, they did not provide room enough in these buildings for the installation of plants that would be smokeless. These buildings have cost an enormous amount of money, and in order to make the changes that are now required by cities, especially where low-grade coals are consumed, not only the renting space would be cut down, but the changes themselves would require such a heavy expenditure that the building owner would hesitate before accepting a scientific statement as to what was required.

CITY REGULATION OF SMOKE.

When these difficulties are summed up and are thoroughly understood, it is seen at once that the city which endeavors to prevent the making of smoke will have to show that there is something besides civic pride back of the campaign for smoke prevention. It will have to show the owners of the buildings that it is dollars and cents in their pockets not only now but for an interminable time in future before any compliance with the popular will can be expected on this score. A great many owners of buildings of this kind have made no secret of their past

policy that it is far cheaper to pay the occasional fine than it is either to put in an automatic stoker or to make a change in the fireroom equipment. In view of these difficulties, the acts of some cities have been little short of ludicrous. The fact that the Eastern cities have been able to accomplish very much in the way of smoke prevention is not by any means a criterion as to what other cities can do. For one thing, anthracite coal in the East, where transportation costs are comparatively low, can be bought almost as cheaply, the amount of heat produced being considered, as the bituminous coals, on which the transportation charges are high. Moreover, the people of the East have become accustomed to using anthracite coal and will consent to use no other. That is a peculiarity of human nature which it is not easy to explain, but nevertheless is a peculiarity which must be taken into consideration. The people, once accustomed to using one grade of coal, will seldom if ever take up any other grade. The futility of merely placing an ordinance on the law books of a city has been demonstrated by the fact that Pittsburg, Cleveland, Cincinnati, and Chicago have not been able to make the slightest headway against the tremendous production of smoke.

It is only now that Chicago is beginning to gain any ground, and this is due to the fact that Mr. Bird, the smoke inspector, has adopted entirely new tactics. In the first place, Mayor Busse has spent his whole life in the coal business and knows more or less about smoke prevention. He appointed Mr. Bird, who is a practical man, and then arranged to give him an advisory board of three expert engineers. Among them is Mr. Bement, who designed the plant for the Commonwealth Edison Company. Shortly after taking office Mr. Bird announced that he did not propose at once to fine the owner of a building the chimney of which was smoking. He said that he would go into the fireroom of the offending building and would study conditions. He and his advisory board would then map out a plan for the prevention of smoke, taking into consideration the grade of coal habitually burned. He would submit this plan free of cost to the owner of the building and would give a reasonable length of time for the compliance of the owner with these requirements of the city department. If, at the expiration of this reasonable time, the chimney was still smoking and no progress had been made toward the installation of a new system which would avoid smoke, the law would be invoked and the maximum penalty of the law would be assessed.

In making these suggestions Mr. Bird and his advisory board took into consideration that the grade of coal used makes the greatest possible difference in whether a chimney will smoke or not. For instance, where anthracite and semi-anthracite coal is used, it requires practically no effort to avoid smoke. They realized that small sizes of coal burn freely while the larger sizes burn more slowly. They realized that if all fine coal is used, or if all large-sized coal is used, it is comparatively easy to adjust conditions so that smoke will not be made, but if fine and large coal, or what is known as run-of-mine coal, is used in a firebox, the very fact that the different sizes burn unequally tends to produce more smoke, and consequently the difficulties of smoke prevention become more serious. It is not an unreasonable thing for a city to demand that, after a boiler-room equipment has been suited to the consumption of a certain size of coal, that size shall be burned in future, because to-day it is the easiest possible thing to buy any size of coal that one wants. In fact, the large percentage of coal mines to-day are producing all different sizes from screenings up to six-inch lump. Consequently, a boiler-room equipment that is adjusted to the burning of any size of coal, either screenings, nut, or lump coal from one and one-half to six inches, can be supplied with that particular size of fuel with the least possible difficulty.

The principle of combustion thus being clearly understood by the consumer, the apparent need of smoke prevention being understood by cities and by the consumers themselves, and especially the tremendous saving from complete combustion of coal being understood, it seems very natural that in the course of another generation smokeless cities will be the rule rather than the exception. This is an optimistic outlook, but it seems to be warranted by the one thing which would make this consummation possible,—the fact that complete combustion of coal is the cheapest thing in the long run for the man who owns the building.

THE GOVERNMENT AS A SPENDER.

BY ERNEST G. WALKER.

CONGRESS, holding the pursestrings, has determined the national disbursements for the fiscal year of 1908-1909. It recently adjourned with a world record for voting public money, and the executive and the administrative authorities are dutifully certain to score a new world record in spending the unprecedented total.

This annual chapter in budgets reads large in every line. It was as ambitious in its beginning as it has been in its ending. The procedure was begun last September, when official by official, bureau by bureau, department by department, contributed to building up the book of estimates, till it comprised 700 broad pages of federal print. When the Secretary of the Treasury, in December, dispatched wagon-loads of those documents to the Capitol, they constituted formal and official notice that almost $1,100,000,000 would be required of Congress at that session for the maintenance of the national Government.

Probably a more valiant defense of the Treasury was never made and possibly none was ever less successful. Designs upon the national strong-box multiplied and were supported by Congressional majorities. The ten-thousand-dollar items grew into hundred-thousand-dollar items. Millions were piled upon millions, heedless of all watchdog warnings, until at last the towering total of ten figures, solitary and alone among the high peaks of Government expenditures, was reached.

Treasury officials are at a loss for descriptions that will bring the billion-dollar term within the average mental grasp. The sum will require every penny from customs, internal taxes, and postal supplies. It will also drain low the quarter-billion reservoir of surplus. It is almost one-third of all the money in the land, more than half the value of all the cargoes and carloads of annual exports, and only $200,000,000 less than the value of all our imports.

A billion of money in twenty-dollar yellow backs would weigh over seventy tons. Compactly stacked against the Washington Monument, they would make twenty-five separate piles, 550 feet high, reaching from the monument's foundation to its very top.

To count a billion silver dollars, the best Treasury expert, working eight hours every business day, would require a century and three years more.

Where will all this money go? It was appropriated through fourteen great supply bills, under more or less arbitrary classifications. The disbursements may be roughly grouped in three grand divisions, as follows:

Postal Service	$225,000,000
Military Service	500,000,000
Other government service	225,000,000

MILLIONS IN SALARIES AND PENSIONS.

The bi-monthly, monthly, and quarterly pay-rolls figure tremendously in all three totals. Employed by the Government, drawing a regular stipend, will be more than half a million men and women,—more than could be assembled with any comfort in the ten square miles of the original District of Columbia. Twenty thousand disbursing agents, scattered through every State and Territory and in every insular dependency, will be occupied in handing out the pay-envelopes to this tax-consuming host.

The salaries of almost 500 Senators and Representatives will approximate $4,000,000, without including mileage and other perquisites. But there are something like 300,000 persons in "the Executive Civil Service of the United States." Ninety per cent. of these are employed outside the city of Washington. While a considerable portion are clerks of various grades and capacities, whose duties are multifarious, the 60,000 and odd postmasters are included, as also scientists and experts, customs and internal revenue collectors and their thousands of deputies, laborers skilled and unskilled, law officers ranging from bailiffs to United States attorneys and judges,—all whose places come under the classified civil service or make up the fruit on the tree of patronage.

The military rolls, always large, are larger this year, since the pay of every man who carries a musket or wears shoulder straps has been materially increased. At the head of the military list are 4000 active and 900 re-

tired army officers, followed by 70,000 privates, the latter representing the authorized enlisted strength to which the army will be recruited before many months go by.

Then comes the navy force, distributed at yards and stations on both coasts, and aboard ships of war, cruising in nearly every ocean of the world. They number 2500 active and 750 retired navy officers and 36,000 bluejackets, of whom 6000 are just entering the service under provision of the last Naval Appropriation law. There are 330 officers and 8500 enlisted marines; 250 active and 60 retired officers and 1500 men of the Revenue Cutter Service.

Pensioners of all our wars, approximating 1,000,000 people, will draw $175,000,000 out of the public funds that Congress has just appropriated. About 800,000 are former soldiers,—all but 100,000 Civil War invalids. Their annual pension, paid quarterly, averages close to $200 a year. The rest, some 200,000, are widows.

But the vast pay-roll does not end here. At least 200,000 more people concerned in governmental activities will draw compensation therefor, chiefly contractors and laborers.

THE POSTAL BUDGET.

Quite one-quarter of the billion dollars is easily segregated. It is the money for the support of the Postal Service, the greatest of all the federal utilities and the service closest to all the people. The Postoffice Department is a little government by itself; for it collects nearly all the revenues it needs and disburses them without intervention from the Treasury Department. The cash tills at every stamp-window are emptied into one common postal fund. The Postmaster-General, not the Secretary of the Treasury, honors the requisitions and draws the warrants. The income, as a rule, approximates the outgo, but whatever is lacking to meet the postal budget of $223,000,000 this year will come, as heretofore, from the general revenues.

The postal budget, a record breaker, will be disbursed through thousands of channels. The eyes and ears of the Postal Service,—its force of 355 inspectors,—will alone cost, with their clerks, their traveling expenses, and rewards for yeggmen, almost $1,000,000. Railroad companies, hauling mail over more than 3000 different lines, will get $50,000,000 of the money before the fiscal year is up. The aggregate of travel by mail trains in that time will exceed 400,000,000 miles,—a distance greater than two round-trip journeys to the sun. There are 39,000 rural mail routes and as many rural carriers, who will require $30,000,000 from the postal revenues for delivering mail at the farmer's door; 15,000 drivers on as many "star routes," over which coaches and buckboards with mail will travel more than 100,000,000 miles, at an average expense to the Government of more than 7 cents a mile.

The Postoffice Department does not pay its administrative force of 1000 persons, employed at Washington. The general Government attends to that on an entirely separate account. But the department does pay working forces of tens of thousands, who will take a billion pieces monthly from boxes and other mail receptacles and speed these to destinations among 90,000,000 people. These nimble-fingered, well-disciplined soldiers of the postal armies are handling 700,000 letters and postal cards and making out 200,000 domestic money orders for every hour of the twenty-four.

On the postal roster are 27,000 city carriers and an equal number of clerks in offices of the first and second class. Many of these are to have a promotion forthwith, by the direction of Congress, and an additional $100 a year. Besides its postmasters, the department is paying this year 2000 assistant postmasters, 10,000 clerks in third-class offices, 17,000 railway mail clerks, 4000 special delivery messengers, and 25,000 mechanics. The pay-roll for watchmen, messengers, and laborers exceeds $700,000.

Congress has placed the Postal Service on a more generous basis than ever. The deficit will be large, much larger than the $13,000,000 deficit for the year just closed. The Postmaster-General warned Congress against this to no purpose. When the uplift of cost for the service was apparent he pleaded for authority to establish a rural parcels post. He demonstrated that if only fifty pounds was transported daily on each route it would obliterate the great postal deficit looming ahead. No additional equipment would be needed. The income would be clear profit. But he was not allowed even to set up an experimental service in one county.

HALF A BILLION FOR MILITARY EXPENDITURES.

The military account is larger than ever before in time of peace, and has been rarely exceeded when the nation was engaged in strife at arms. In the most comprehensive sense Congress voted for this account at its

recent session $500,000,000, or one-half the total of all the budget, and approximately that sum will be expended for wars past and prospective during the fiscal year just beginning. It covers the deficiencies; liquidates $25,000,000 of interest for the public debt,—incurred in war operations,—supplies nearly $60,000,000 for the sinking fund; furnishes $10,000,000 needed to replete the pension fund, and $163,000,000 more for current pension demands; assures $6,000,000 to support the score of State and national homes for invalid soldiers; builds and maintains arsenals, armories, and navy yards; allows $2,000,000 toward the support of the militia; keep big guns frowning from emplacements at every important harbor, from San Juan and Boston to San Francisco, Honolulu, and Manila, and, finally, puts the army and navy nearer that standard of war efficiency, which is said to make for peace.

The ramifications of military expenditures extend to Government enterprises of a purely civilian character, such as the improvement of harbors to accommodate our largest ships of war. The roadsteads at Hilo, in the island of Hawaii; at Santiago, where there is a coaling station; at Pensacola; the East Branch of the Potomac, near Washington, and harbors at two or three other places are being deepened beyond commercial requirements for the advantage of the navy.

Five of the fourteen annual budgets pertain exclusively to past and prospective military operations, but include only a portion of the expenditures just enumerated. The amounts carried on these several appropriation laws for the current year, and the increases for each of those laws over the previous fiscal year, stand:

		Increases.
Army bill	$95,382,247	$16,647,665
Navy bill	122,662,485	23,703,978
Fortifications bill	9,317,145	2,419,134
Military Academy bill.	845,634	*1,084,069
Pension bill	163,053,000	16,910,000
Total	$391,260,511	$58,596,782

* Decrease.

Interest, sinking fund, deficiencies, arsenals, armories, soldiers' homes, and militia are carried on other budgets, and would escape the attention of the casual reader of military items of expenditure. Many of the increases which Congress voted during a billion-dollar session were for making the army and the navy more formidable. The campaigns for the increased size and efficiency of the two military arms were conducted aggressively and, on the whole, successfully. The pay of every enlisted soldier, sailor, marine, and revenue-cutter private was increased $5 a month; of their officers $500 a year. Two new *Dreadnaughts,* instead of four, were authorized, each of the floating fortresses to cost for hull, armament, machinery, and equipage close to $10,000,000. The annual cost of maintenance for such a ship, including repairs and pay of officers and men, who must be supplied as fast as the ships are commissioned, will approximate $1,000,000. The navy now comprehends fifty-odd ships, built and building, of which thirty-one are heavy ships-of-war. Several of these are about to be commissioned or will go into commission within a couple of years, which means that the navy maintenance item must increase by leaps and bounds. Good judges say that the $150,000,000 mark will be reached in half a decade.

Even the navy deficiencies, not carried in the regular budget, are mounting to many millions at every session. Four years ago Congress prohibited the making of deficiencies by officials of the executive departments and attached penal clauses thereto. But the army and the navy are exempted. The deficiency item for navy coal at the recent session was $2,700,000,—a little more than half the amount of the coal bill for the battleship fleet on its voyage around the world.

VARIOUS DISBURSEMENTS.

An outline of the disbursements making up the remaining quarter of a billion dollars can be had from a table of the other appropriations as follows:

		Increases.
Agricultural bill	$11,672,106	$2,224,816
Diplomatic and Consular bill	3,577,463	485,130
District of Columbia bill	10,117,668	*323,930
Indian bill	9,253,347	*871,729
Legislative bill.....	32,833,821	707,488
Sundry Civil bill	112,937,313	2,168,102
Deficiency bills (3)...	59,995,973	46,848,075
Permanent appropriations	154,194,295	4,307,975
Total	$394,581,986	$55,546,927

* Decrease.

From this list of titles indicating ordinary Government expenditures must be deducted about $150,000,000 for the military account as classified. Interest on the public debt and the sinking fund, both carried on the permanent appropriations, make half of that sum. They are items which Chairman Tawney, of the House Appropriations Committee, characterizes as charges "on acount of wars."

The federal Government's contribution to the development of agriculture is shown in the $11,000,000 total of the Agricultural bill. That pays for the Weather Bureau Service,

the Forest Service, and many scores of farm and soil investigations that occupy a small army of experts. They are soil physicists, entomologists, biologists, chemists in many branches, plant pathologists, crop technologists, taxonomists, and many, many more. They duplicate some investigations and experiments that State governments are conducting. None the less, the service is close to the people and very popular with the farmer vote, North and South. The cost has been increasing at a rapid pace. Ten years ago it was less than half the present figure.

The Diplomatic bill pays the salaries of ambassadors, ministers, and consuls and meets divers expenses incident to the foreign service.

In the business of conducting a municipality in the District of Columbia Congress authorized the disbursement of $10,000,000, but half of that sum is collected by taxation in the District, which sum should be accredited as national revenue. These are the only direct taxes levied since 1885, and are collected through local municipal authorities.

The Indian bill represents the sentimental side of legislation and includes a large civil service for the education, support, and welfare of a multitude of vanishing tribes, most of them on reservations in the West.

The Legislative, Executive, and Judicial bill supplies the administrative force for most of the Washington departments, for the Army, Navy, and Postoffice departments among the rest. It is sometimes called "the engine-room force." Its numerical strength is more than 25,000 clerks and officials. They are the Government employees of whom it is said that none die and few resign. The records also show that the salaries of this faithful, patient force are rarely raised, for, with all the increase in their numbers with the growth of the Government business, the total of the "Legislative" bill is hardly a third larger than it was thirty years ago. The same measure carries the compensation for all Congress and its legion of employees and for most of the federal courts.

UNCLE SAM'S BIG PUBLIC WORKS.

The Sundry Civil is the great odds-and-ends appropriation, but it has swelled in aggregate and importance as the years have passed. Big bureaus are provided for from this budget, particularly the Geological Survey, which conducts operations in nearly every State and Territory, and the Coast and Geodetic Survey. It likewise carries most appropriations for public works, which are taking many millions annually from the Treasury. This year it will be close to $75,000,000, and may far exceed that sum. The Panama Canal project, which will wed the two oceans and make real the dream of centuries, leads all the public-works items. It is now costing $3,000,000 a month, and the rate will be larger as the enterprise progresses.

Dredges and derricks and like equipment now dot almost every navigable inland waterway. They constitute the outward evidence of the Government's activity in river and harbor improvements, comprising 600 projects under the supervision of army engineers. The engineers are spending about $25,000,000 of Government money this year. Of this $18,000,000 is under continuing contracts for building breakwaters, deepening channels, excavating turning basins, and otherwise extending navigation facilities calculated to encourage trade. There are still Congressional authorizations for eighty-five projects, to cost $31,000,000, which must be paid for by this or the next Congress.

There never was a time before when the Government was building so extensively and so expensively as now. Omitting new and modern lighthouses, rising on every shoal and danger point where the mariners are not adequately protected, the trowel and the hammer and saw are erecting structures in hundreds of towns and cities that will furnish an ocular demonstration to the citizen of his Government. A law has just passed that assures 515 new postoffices, courthouses, and custom-houses all the way from Maine to California. It will double the number of public buildings, toward the erection of which the Supervising Architect of the Treasury will spend this year close to $15,000,000. The money goes in part for sites, which command fancy prices when the Government is a buyer, and in some part for enlarging and extending old buildings which the public service has outgrown.

THE GOVERNMENT'S RECEIPTS.

Spending unprecedented millions for these and hundreds of other items, where will Uncle Sam get the money?

The postal revenues and the Postal Service can well be eliminated from the answer. In round numbers, $1,000,000 comes jingling through the customs-houses every business day. A year ago it was almost $1,000,000

every calendar day, but times have changed. The financial and industrial depression has been accompanied by a falling off in imports, which means a falling off in duties. It is a Presidential campaign year. That always affects business unfavorably, and if it does not affect imports this year, as usually happens, the prospective revision of the tariff will produce such an effect.

In normal modern years nearly another $1,000,000 comes in every business day for internal taxes. These represent chiefly moneys paid as a tax on distilled and malted liquors, on tobacco and cigars, and for special licenses, wholesale and retail, for those who sell. These internal-revenue totals are affected by much the same influences as depress the total of customs dues. In the last twelve months they fell to $260,000,000.

Numerous other sources of federal revenue yield large sums. They are hardly more than driblets, however, when the Government's gigantic operations are considered. The proceeds from the sale of public lands average $6,000,000, practically all of which is transferred to the fund for agricultural colleges,—one in every State and Territory,—and to the fund for the reclamation of arid Western tracts. The District of Columbia yields the same sum in realty and personal taxes, all of which is spent on the Washington City government. Miscellaneous receipts from other sources, including patent fees, now make about $60,000,000.

THIS YEAR'S BALANCE SHEET.

Various estimates are made of what the revenues will be for this billion-dollar year. The figure probably will not exceed $600,000,000; with the postal revenues it will be $200,000,000 more. The exact appropriations covering the entire session were $1,008,804,894. This included deficiencies, some of which were used before this fiscal year began. But the total for the fiscal year will remain about the same, because other deficiencies must be provided for this year, when Congress next assembles.

The prospect, therefore, remains for a deficit of $200,000,000 before June 30, 1909, rolls round, which will be far and away the greatest deficit of any year since the Civil War. To meet it the Treasury has a $240,000,000 surplus, which should suffice. If it is not enough, there remains the expedient of selling bonds.

CONGRESS AND THE ESTIMATES.

The House organization is built to curb extravagant tendencies. The Appropriations Committee, which prepares and handles about half of the annual budgets,—and keeps a supervision over all of them, because it has jurisdiction over all deficiencies whatsoever,—is composed of seventeen seasoned, steady men. It is now the big committee of the House and its membership is very carefully selected. The law requires that the Secretary of the Treasury shall have the estimates by October 15, in ample time for printing, so that this and other appropriation committees of the House, where all bills affecting the revenues must originate, can have the information by December.

The Committee on Appropriations,—or some subcommittee thereof,—is in almost daily session from the time that Congress convenes. It conducts comprehensive and careful hearings, at which the estimates for future expenditures are reviewed. Hundreds of witnesses are called, including cabinet officers. The President is alone exempt. The committee took 3000 printed pages of testimony at the last session. The Naval Affairs Committee, which prepares the Naval bill; the Military Affairs Committee, which prepares the Army and the Military Academy bills; the Agricultural, Indian, Postoffice and Foreign Affairs committees, that prepare the respective appropriation bills within their jurisdictions, probably took as many thousand pages more. In every instance there was a determined effort to scale the estimates for the various budgets.

The Speaker keeps a hand on all appropriation work. If he fixes a limit for a bill, it is reasonably certain that the committee will comply. He is, perhaps, less influential in restraining the House from increasing a budget by the amendment process, but, in the main, his wishes prevail even there. He follows the measures through the Senate, where increases are invariably made, some for "trading purposes." While he is never a conferee, the Speaker watches proceedings in conference, and not infrequently gives the word that a certain proposed appropriation must not be allowed. His influence in that regard is potent. His efforts during the period of final adjustment of the big supply measures save the Government from many millions of expenditures.



THE EIGHT NEWLY ELECTED BISHOPS OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH

Bishop Charles W. Smith. Bishop William A. Quayle.
Bishop John Lewis Nuelsen. Bishop William F. Anderson.

THE NEW METHODIST BISHOPS.

BY FERDINAND COWLE IGLEHART.

ONE person out of every twelve, one Christian out of every five, one Protestant out of every four, in the United States is a member of the Methodist Church. Hence, the significance and interest of the Quadrennial Sessions of the Methodist Conference to people of all religious creeds. Besides the measures adopted as outlined in the editorial paragraphs in the REVIEW last month, the Baltimore Conference abolished the six-months' probation as a condition of church membership, consolidated the Eastern and Western Book Concerns, changed the name "Presiding Elder" to "District Superintendent," declined to make any change in the rule of the church on amusements, refused to return to a time limit on the pastorate, and adopted with enthusiasm the majority report on temperance read by Governor Hanly, of Indiana, endorsing the Anti-Saloon League.

The business of the Conference culminated in the election of bishops. Eight were elected from the more than 100 candidates voted for on the first ballot.

William F. Anderson was born in Morgantown, W. Va., April 22, 1860. He was graduated from the Ohio Wesleyan University and from the Drew Theological Seminary, and began at once a successful pastorate in New York City and vicinity, which terminated four years ago in his election to the secretaryship of the Church Board of Education. Bishop Anderson has dignity of bearing, is kindly in spirit, just in his estimates of men and measures, and is possessed of singular tact and executive ability. He is industrious, and has succeeded in his churches by his ability as a preacher and devotion as a pastor, and in his secretaryship by his wisdom, zeal, and fidelity to duty.

John Lewis Nuelsen was born in Zurich, Switzerland, January 19, 1867, his father being a German Methodist missionary stationed in that city. After a liberal education in Germany and this country, the younger Nuelsen spent some years in pastoral and educational work in Missouri. At the time of his election to the episcopacy he was a professor in the Nast Theological Seminary at Berea, Ohio. He has written books worth reading; he edits a theological publication, and reads and speaks four languages. His technical theological study has not dried up the streams of human affection in him, nor the fountains of his spiritual life. He was the candidate of the German Methodists.

The parents of William Alfred Quayle came from the Isle of Man, and Hall Caine, also a native Manxman, calls the heroine of his novel, "The Christian," Glory Quayle, after the bishop's family. The boy is a



CHOSEN BY THE GENERAL CONFERENCE HELD AT BALTIMORE IN MAY.

Bishop Robert M. McIntyre. Bishop Wilson S. Lewis. Bishop Edwin H. Hughes. Bishop Frank M. Bristol.

product of Kansas, having been student and professor and president of Baker University in that State. At the time of his election he had charge of the important St. James Church in Chicago. Bishop Quayle is an industrious worker, an omnivorous reader, a fascinating author, a popular dramatic lecturer, and a powerful pulpit orator.

The grandfather of Charles W. Smith was received into the Methodist Church by John Wesley himself at Belfast. The father of the new bishop came from Ireland, and his son was born in Fayette County, Pa. He is in his sixty-ninth year, the oldest man ever elected a Methodist bishop. Dr. Smith has been for nearly a quarter of a century the able and successful editor of the Pittsburg *Christian Advocate*. He is an eminent ecclesiastical lawyer, and it is understood that a man of his judgment and knowledge was greatly needed on the Board of Bishops.

Wilson Seeley Lewis is a native of St. Lawrence County, N. Y. He has, however, spent most of his life in Iowa, devoting three years to the pastorate and a score or more to seminary and college work. For eleven years he has been president of Morningside College at Sioux City, Iowa. Senator Doliver, a member of the General Conference, who knew the strong mental and moral qualities of Dr. Lewis, did much to secure his election at Baltimore.

Edwin Holt Hughes was born in 1866. Graduated from the Ohio Wesleyan University and from the Boston Theological School, he occupied important pulpits in and around Boston, and has for five years been president of the De Pauw University. He is a man of keen mentality and an orator of remarkable power. He has been a brilliant success as a college president, doubling the student attendance and the endowment under his administration.

Robert McIntyre comes from Scotland, having been born in Selkirk. The father, who moved to Philadelphia when his family was young, soon died, leaving Robert, at seventeen years of age, with a stepmother and a large family of small children to support. The young man learned the bricklayer's trade and took good care of those dependent on him. He is one of the most fascinating public speakers in the United States. His six years' pastorate in Los Angeles has been phenomenally successful. He is also an author, with a volume of poems and a novel to his credit.

Frank Bristol worked on a farm near Kankakee, Ill., in the summer and clerked in a drug store in the winter to support and educate himself. He was graduated from the Northwestern University at an early age. He preached for many years with great success in the most important pulpits of Chicago and Evanston. Bishop Bristol has a charming personality, a virile mentality, and an esthetic temperament. He has been for eleven years pastor of the Metropolitan Church in Washington. President McKinley more than once declared he had never heard Dr. Bristol preach a poor sermon.

It is interesting as proving that Methodism is true to her tradition in remaining the church of the common people that not a single one of these eight bishops was the child of wealth or ease. Two were poor

immigrant boys; three others were the sons of immigrants. Of the eight, one was the son of a weaver; three others had poor Methodist preachers for fathers; three were the sons of humble farmers, and one was the child of a merchant, and he while yet a mere lad was compelled to "get out and dig for himself." The homes of these boys, however, were rich in the highest thought, the noblest ambition, and the finest character. These very sons of poverty and toil are now the favorites of wealth and culture as well as the proud possession of the plain people and the poor. Not all of the good bishop timber was exhausted in the election. It looks as though the Methodist Episcopal Church had made no mistake in the selection of the men who are to wear her honors and lead in her contests: men of character, of ability, of availability, of devotion to the temporal and spiritual interests of their fellow-men.

QUEBEC, THREE HUNDRED YEARS AFTER CHAMPLAIN.

BY LOUIS E. VAN NORMAN.

THE first world-gathering to which Canada has bidden the nations is not a commercial or industrial world's fair, but a birthday fête, the celebration of the three-hundredth anniversary of the founding of the city of Quebec, the "Cradle of Canada." Just three centuries ago (on July 3, 1608), the stout-hearted French navigator, Samuel de Champlain, who had come to Canada in the service of a wealthy French merchant and with the the authorization of his king, began the erection of a block-house on the heights of Quebec, laying the foundation of the city which still bears that name. The era of French discovery and exploration in the New World, of course, actually dates from Jacques Cartier's first visit to Canada, in 1534. His attempted settlement at Cap Rouge, however, failed, and there was no further French exploration until Champlain, on that third day of July, 300 years ago, laid the foundation of the Canadian nation. In this month of the year 1908 the inhabitants of the Dominion, no longer merely French or merely English, but of a real distinct type, Canadian, will celebrate with fitting ceremonies the three-hundredth birthday of Quebec. Beginning July 20, and continuing for five or six days, there will be a splendid pageant in the old city, under the direction of Mr. Frank Lascelles, who conducted the successful Oxford pageant in England last year.



SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN, FOUNDER OF CANADA.
(From an old print.)

The three centuries of Canadian history will be recalled in this pageant, from the landing of Cartier until at last, in one great final scene (to quote Mr. Lascelles' words), the like of which

> taxes one's imagination to the utmost, we shall see our common ancestors side by side, as they have been ever since, in one of the greatest assemblies that the heart of man can conceive. In one great group will be gathered all of the historical characters who have played their parts in the various scenes, and beyond them some thousands of soldiers of France, of England, and of America sent to Quebec to do honor to this great tercentenary celebration.

The historic battle on the Plains of Abraham will be reproduced, the fight between the French and the English on September 15, 1759, and also the French victory of a few months later. Wolfe will again be victorious, and Levis will again defeat Murray.



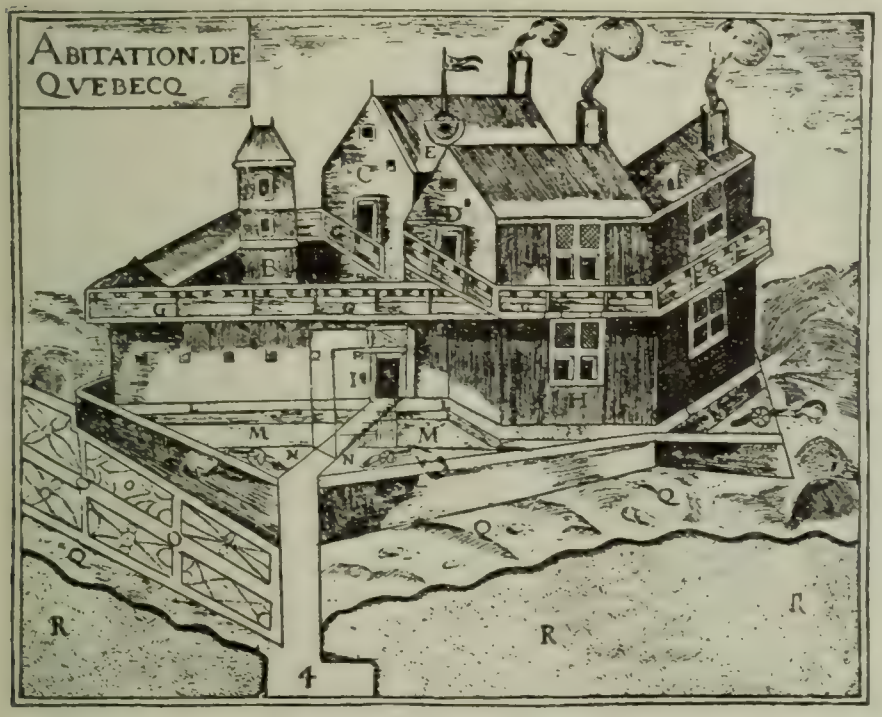
THE CHAMPLAIN MONUMENT, QUEBEC.



MR. FRANK LASCELLES.

(Organizer of the Quebec Pageant.)

The British Empire will be represented on this memorable occasion by the Prince of Wales and the Secretary of State for the Colonies, the Earl of Crewe; the French Government by a full admiral, and our own Government by Vice-President Fairbanks. Besides these eminent representatives of governments, which will include also officials from Australia, South Africa, New Zealand, and Newfoundland, there will be a representative of Brouage, the French birthplace of Champlain, and the living descendants of Wolfe, Montcalm, and other great names connected with Canadian history. The fleets of three nations,—Britain, France, and the United States,—will be in the harbor and take honorary part in the celebration.



CHAMPLAIN'S BLOCKHOUSE, FROM WHICH QUEBEC GREW.

(This illustration appears in Champlain's edition of his travels published in 1613. A, storehouse; B, dovecote; C, armory and workmen's lodging; D, workmen's lodging; E, dial; F, blacksmith shop and mechanics' lodging; G, galleries all about the dwellings; H, Champlain's house; I, gate and drawbridge; L, promenade, ten feet wide; M, meat; N, platform for cannon; O, Champlain's garden; P, kitchen; Q, open space; R, St. Lawrence River.

The project for celebrating the three-hundredth birthday of Quebec, while generally ascribed to the initiative of Earl Grey, Governor-General of the Dominion, was really conceived in the summer of

1905, when the St. Jean Baptiste Society of Quebec adopted a resolution calling upon the civic authorities to commemorate in some way the anniversary. This society, in its resolution, emphasized its belief and desire that such celebration should not assume alone a French-Canadian character, but that it should be Canadian in the broadest sense of the term. All inhabitants of the Dominion, without distinction of origin or creed, the resolution asked, should be invited to participate in the celebration ceremonies. Other bodies and private citizens also urged the matter upon the civil authorities, and in May, two years ago, a general committee was appointed to organize the present celebration. It was Earl Grey's desire that in connection with the celebrations there should be some lasting memorial of the three centuries of Canadian history in Quebec. He suggested a national historical museum, but it was finally decided that the event would best be commemorated by the nationalization of the battlefields surrounding the old city and the creation of a Dominion national park. The plan includes the building of a wide driveway around the cliffs and the erection of a great monument to peace in the harbor, a monument to rival the Statue of Liberty in the bay of New York. The Landmark Commission purposes naming the park which they intend to encircle the city of Quebec King Edward Park. This would be perhaps the only public popular resort in the world consecrated by battlefields upon which two peoples have met with honors equally divided.

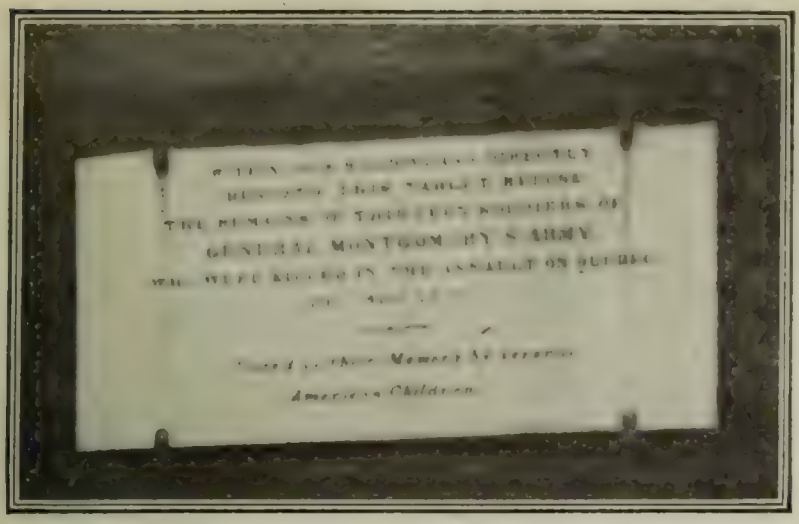


ST. LOUIS GATE AND ENTRANCE TO GRANDE ALLÉE, QUEBEC.



ENTRANCE TO LAVAL ACADEMY, IN QUEBEC.
(Where the American prisoners, from Montgomery's force, were held.)

Nature and history have combined to give Quebec, with its glorious traditions of old New England and old New France, a unique location for a national park in the Heights and Plains of Abraham. A sturdy, thrifty Scotsman in the service of the French Government in Canada, a pilot known as Maître Abraham (Martin), secured, by means of a deed authorized by Champlain in 1635, a homestead overlooking the valley of the St. Charles River. His sheep and cattle grazed over all the high ground looking over the St. Lawrence and were watered at a stream which has given a name, Claire Fontaine, to one of the principal sections of modern Quebec. It was on these plains and within sight of their green slopes that all the struggles for Canadian national unity were waged. It is a narrow mistake to connect these plains only with the victory and death of General Wolfe in 1759. All Frenchmen, as well as all French Canadians, remember that on that



THE MEMORIAL TABLET ERECTED WHERE GENERAL MONTGOMERY FELL.

field and with equal glory the French general Montcalm was stricken and died. If

"HERE DIED WOLFE VICTORIOUS"

equally true and dignified is the inscription on the grave of the French commander:

"HONNEUR A MONTCALM
Le Destin
EN LUI DEROBANT LA VICTOIRE
L'A RECOMPENSE
PAR UNE MORT GLORIEUSE."

Five battles took place around Quebec, in two of which it was Englishmen who were the victors, while three are to the credit of France. The government monument, indeed, is erected to both Wolfe and Montcalm. If, within sight of these fields, the American general Montgomery fell in an attack upon the city of Quebec, Canadians remember that American rangers accompanied Wolfe in his victorious campaign, and Americans cannot forget that the great Champlain not only founded Quebec; he discovered one of the most beautiful lakes within the boundaries of their own country.

In emphasizing the national character of the celebration and the significance of the event as indicative of the emergence of a real Canadian national type, the report of the Landmark Commission closes with this stirring paragraph:

These few famous acres are no dilettante souvenir of a dead and buried past, but the living embodiment of her [Canada's] ancestral spirit at the zenith of its aspiration and achievement. Reverence for the mighty past is always the most inherent stimulus for bringing national responsibility home to the present and insuring care for the future. It is the mark of all great peoples; it is taught by the faith of all religion, by the records of all history, and by the most



WOLFE'S MONUMENT ON THE PLAINS OF ABRAHAM, QUEBEC.

modern science of heredity. Science and history also prove that the same essential energy assumes different forms to meet different needs. So it is no idle sentiment, but a scientific fact, that most of the national energy now displayed in bridging the St. Lawrence at Cap Rouge, building new transcontinental railways and transoceanic steamers, prospecting and surveying and pioneering far and wide, repatriating French-Canadians in the Quebec hinterland, or directing toward the waiting prairie the full flood tide of human life that surges so eagerly through Winnipeg Station—it is a scientific fact that most of this transmuted energy is inherited from the national heroes of the Plains of Abraham. We call them national heroes advisedly, because they represented all the dominant elements of Canadian life to-day. We might call them international with equal truth,—for France, the British Empire, and the United States all shared alike in glorious victory and in defeat with honor. This makes the Plains as happily unique as they are undoubtedly immortal, because every race was seen there at its best. The corruption that ate out the heart of New France under Bigot was only an intensification of the evils in old France under Louis XV.; the bickering politics of the British Colonies were beneath the contempt of statesmanship; and England under Bute simply boodled her way to peace through a venal House of Commons and broke her word of honor to her deserted allies. But to what advantage our forefathers appeared when on our fields of battle! Here they set us forever an example of the highest self-sacrifice and discipline. For here was "the very crucible in which our several races were tried and tried again in the intensest fire of war; tried and not found wanting . . . . and here, on these world-celebrated Heights and Plains of Abraham, to-day they unite us all forever in a single glory and on a single field."

The Plains of Abraham really stand alone among the world's battlefields. Here an empire was lost and won in the first clash of arms, "the balance of victory was redressed in the second, and the honor of each army was heightened in both." This joint celebration in the British colony comes at a happy moment, when England and France, the mother countries, have come together in a cordial understanding. The *entente cordiale* which now unites the two peoples really began years ago, when the Dominion Government erected the joint monument in Quebec Park to Wolfe and Montcalm.

THE OLYMPIC GAMES IN LONDON.

BY EDWARD G. HAWKE.

[The following account of the preparations for the celebration of the fifth modern Olympiad this month in the grounds of the Franco-British Exposition is contributed by a London correspondent.—THE EDITOR.]

THE idea of reviving the ancient Olympic games under conditions suited to the modern world arose in the fertile brain of Baron Pierre de Coubertin, the French publicist, in 1894. He propounded it at an athletic congress sitting in Paris and it met with a cordial reception. An international Olympic Committee was formed; the larger states sent three members apiece, the smaller states one member each. This body at once began to organize the first modern Olympic festival, which was held at Athens in 1896, in the ancient Stadium, reseated with marble for the occasion by a wealthy Greek merchant of Alexandria, M. Averoff. This festival was a great success. No longer confined, as the old games in the Altis at Olympia had been, to men of one race, the Athenian games attracted competitors of many nations, and the athletes of America distinguished themselves by winning nearly all the chief events. The long-distance race from Marathon, associated with the old games at Athens, was also revived, and was won by a Greek peasant. It was generally felt, after this festival, that Baron de Coubertin's idea had justified itself, and that the Olympic Committee must go on with its work. A second Olympiad was accordingly celebrated at Paris in 1900, and a third at St. Louis in 1904. The fourth was held at Athens again in 1906. Circumstances prevented the Italian committee from carrying out their plans, and they ceded their turn to England. The British Olympic Association took up the work with great ardor and secured the co-operation of almost all the powerful bodies controlling various forms of sport in the country. At its head is Lord Desborough, who, as W. H. Grenfell, was a famous Oxford oarsman and athlete, and who is deservedly popular at court and in society. On the council are eminent sportsmen like Lord Montagu of Beaulieu, the motorist; Lord Cheylesmere, the leading spirit of the National Rifle Association; Sir Lees Knowles, the old Cambridge athlete; Major



THE OLYMPIC STADIUM IN THE GROUNDS OF THE FRANCO-BRITISH EXPOSITION, LONDON.

(The central lawn is 210 yards long and 100 yards wide. There is a great swimming-tank on the western edge. The tiers of seats will accommodate between 70,000 and 80,000 spectators.)

Egerton Green, of Hurlingham, and as honorary secretary, the courteous and popular Rev. R. S. de Courcy Laffan. The late Sir Howard Vincent, whose recent death is much regretted on both sides of the Atlantic, was also a member of the council. Although, at the time of writing, the entry-list for the chief events has not yet been closed, it is already certain that the London Olympiad will be the most representative yet held, since twenty-two countries have announced the intention to send competitors in one or more of the numerous branches of sport that figure on the program.

THE SPLENDID NEW STADIUM.

The first duty of the promoters was to secure a suitable arena for purely athletic contests. The new Stadium attests their success. No such building has ever been seen in modern Europe; in size, indeed, it appears to surpass the most famous amphitheaters of antiquity; and if it has not their romantic associations or their architectural grandeur, it testifies to the incomparable skill of the modern engineer. The Stadium is elliptical in shape. All round it rise seemingly innumerable tiers of seats, supported on a strong but light framework of girders; there are broad entrances at frequent intervals, and the intervening spaces are given to dressing-rooms and refreshment-rooms, with an outside belt of galleries for an exhibition of sports and pastimes. The Stadium is so well planned and so lofty that it seems at first to be a comparatively small inclosure, since the eye has nothing to guide it in estimating the size. It is in reality stupendous, affording seating room for between 70,000 and 80,000 spectators. Along the outer edge of the arena is an excellent cement cycle-track, banked up very high at the curves; this is twelve yards wide, and the lap is 660 yards, or three-eighths of a mile. On the inner side of the cement track is a strip of turf five yards wide, intended to prevent accidents to racing cyclists who may leave the track. Within this, again, is the cinder-path, eight yards in width, measuring three laps to the mile, and now in perfect order. The central space is one immense lawn,—in length a furlong, or rather more than the ancient Greek "Stadium" of 210 yards, and in breadth 100 yards. There will be ample space on this magnificent grassy field for the short-distance events such as hurdle races, and for gymnastics, archery and other sports. This is not all. On the western edge of the lawn is a great tank of water, 100 meters in length and 15 meters wide, for the swimming contests; it varies in depth from four feet at each end to about twelve feet in the center. A staging has been erected over the deep water for the diving matches; a dive of thirty feet can be taken from this in safety. It will be apparent from this brief description that the Stadium is well adapted for all kinds of athletic sport. It has a far larger arena than the Coliseum at Rome, where the space for games measured about eighty yards by fifty yards, and it will probably seat as many spectators. The typical Stadium of ancient Greek cities was about as long but was much narrower, because it was intended only for foot races, in which the runners ran backward and forward, and not in a circle, as on a modern track.

AN EXTENDED SERIES OF GAMES.

The Olympic games in the Stadium begin on July 13. But the contests in some sports are of necessity decided elsewhere, and several of these take place earlier. Thus, the Olympic racquet matches were played in April, the covered lawn-tennis matches and the tennis matches in May. The polo competition will be played at Hurlingham in the week beginning June 15; unfortunately, only two London clubs and an Irish team have entered. The lawn-tennis matches, for which a good entry is expected both from America and the Continent, begin on July 6 at the All-England Club, Wimbledon. On July 9 the shooting contests will start at the Bisley ranges, where the great volunteer rifle meeting is held; twelve countries at least are sending riflemen to compete for the Olympic trophies; there will be both individual and team competitions, with service weapons and with match rifles, with fixed and with waving targets. Revolver shooting forms a separate section. Clay-bird shooting is also included in the program; this competition will be held at the Uxendon Shooting Club, not far away. Another outside event will be the motor-boat race in Southampton water on July 11.

The Stadium program is so comprehensive that it must take many days. For it includes athletic sports in the ordinary sense, cycling, swimming, water polo, and wrestling,—all from July 13; gymnastics on July 14, 15 and 16; fencing, in a special ground adjacent to the main inclosure, from July 16; and archery on July 17, 18, and 20. The athletic events number 25; they include flat

races over 100, 200, 400, 800 and 1500 metres, and five miles, a steeplechase over 3200 meters (two miles), a three-mile race and a relay race of a mile between national teams, hurdle races over 110 and 400 meters, walking races over 3500 meters and ten miles, jumps, throwing the hammer, putting the weight, and a tug of war. Two revivals that will of course be popular are the contests in throwing the discus and the javelin; elaborate rules are provided for hurling the discus either "in the free style" or as at Athens, after the manner shown in the famous statue of the Discobulus, "from a rectangular pedestal."

The most thrilling of all, however, will be the "Marathon race" on July 24, over roads for an approximate distance of twenty-five miles 600 yards, finishing with one lap round the Stadium. The course laid down for this great race has, curiously enough, a close association with the poet Milton, the tercentenary of whose birth falls this year. For it starts from Windsor and runs through Slough to Uxbridge, skirting a part of Southern Bucks, which the poet knew well. From Uxbridge the course bends northeast to Ruisly's and Pinner, then southeast through Harron and Sudbury to Willesden, and thence across the open space called Wormwood Scrubbs to the exhibition grounds. Most of this route lies over comparatively quiet country roads, as far as Harrow, and the roads connecting the rapidly growing suburbs between Harrow and Willesden are not very busy with traffic. There is a steep hill between Slough and Uxbridge, and after that the road undulates to Harrow, but the surface is as a rule good, except after heavy rain. The American athletes who compete will not at any rate suffer so much from dust and heat as did the runners in the Marathon race at St. Louis, won, as every one should remember, by Thomas Hicks, of Cambridgeport, Mass., after a magnificent struggle.

OTHER ATHLETIC EVENTS OF THE PROGRAM.

It would take too long to innumerate all the other events to be decided in the Stadium. But it may be noted that there will be cycle races over twenty and 100 kilometers as well as for short distances; that in swimming there will be a race over 1500 meters and a 200-meter race for national teams of four, and that the wrestling competitions in both styles are well arranged in five weights for "catch-as-catch-can" and four for Graeco-Roman. In gymnastics both individuals and teams (varying from sixteen to forty) will compete. This should be, from the spectacular point of view, one of the most novel features of the Olympiad.

When the Stadium games have ended, there will still be many events to decide. From July 27 to July 29 there are to be yacht races at Ryde, each country being allowed to enter two boats in each of the five classes. On July 28 will begin the Olympic regatta at Henley. It is already known that Hungary, Sweden, Italy, Belgium, Holland, Germany, and Canada will be represented, besides England, so that it will be the most notable international regatta ever held. The English eight will be selected with special care, as there is a keen desire to beat the Belgians, who surprised every one by winning the Grand Challenge Cup at Henley. Nor will the regatta end the festival, for the indefatigable committees have arranged Olympic contests at football, hockey, lacrosse, and skating for next October. Baseball and golf seem to be almost the only outdoor games that have been omitted. But baseball is not understood in England, and golf has been deleted from the program because the Royal and Ancient Club of St. Andrews, the benevolent despot of the game, would not consent to organize an Olympic competition. The golfers are alone in holding aloof. In all other branches of sport the efforts of the Olympic Committee have been well received, and all that English sportsmen can do will be done to make the London Olympic games both interesting and memorable. A fine club house, the Imperial Sports Club, close to the Stadium, is being rapidly made ready for the many fellow-sportsmen whom they hope to welcome from the Continent and from America. Englishmen are curious to see whether America will sweep the board of trophies as they did at the four other Olympic festivals.

ON THE OTHER SIDE.

BY TRUMAN A. DEWEESE.

ABOUT the time you make up your mind to go to Europe some widely traveled friend will show you some snapshots taken on Lake Maxinkuckee or Little Traverse Bay, and will say to you quietly and earnestly: "Why don't you see America first?"

The question is tantalizing to a patriotic American. Of course you haven't seen your own country. But no American ever will see his own country; it's too big. If your doctor understands you as every doctor should understand his patients, he will furnish you with ample excuse for going abroad. He will tap your chest with his little hammer, listen to the pumping machinery in your cardiac region, and then solemnly advise you to take an ocean voyage. "It will quiet your nerves and strengthen your heart action. You need rest and play," he says; and being a tractable and obedient patient, you get ready to take his prescription.

Of course you will take the wife and children. God pity you if you have no wife and children to take. Seeing Europe alone is dull, stupid, monotonous, uninteresting. Traveling in strange lands and hearing nothing but strange voices that rasp your nerves with unintelligible jargon, with no sympathetic companion to pat you on the back when you have humiliated an impudent *portier,* and no one to share your protests against exorbitant hotel bills, is lonesome business, to say the least. The chief delight of European travel comes from the sympathetic ear and the beaming face of the one who knows you and understands you best, who shares your surprises, your disappointments, your tribulations, who cheers you in your hours of travail and adds a joyous touch to your moments of ecstacy, who listens with patient fortitude to your opinions of everything European, whose gentle presence is a benediction, and whose cheerful, hopeful companionship is a better tonic than salt sea air,—oh, well, if you haven't a wife, take your sister, your cousin, or your aunt. Take some one. Even your old classmate or college chum is better than no one. Imagine a man wandering alone through the palaces and gardens of Versailles, with all their wealth of sculptural beauty and horticultural grandeur, and no one to talk to!

Fortunate indeed is the traveler who, by accident or intention, finds himself on a slow boat. You have time to get acquainted with people. A five-day boat is also apt to be full of machinery, sailors, and coal, and you haven't the lounging-room you have on an eight-day or ten-day boat. Moreover, you must bear in mind that you pay for your meals when you purchase your passage ticket, and it is cheaper than living in a foreign hotel. If the boat loses her rudder or breaks her propeller, and you are delayed two days, you are just that much ahead of the company. They will have to board you until you reach your destination.

Listen patiently to the advice of the man who travels with nothing but his pajamas,—and then forget it. He has his notions about travel. It does him good to impress you with his kindly solicitude for your comfort and pleasure. The man without a trunk is more to be pitied than "The Man Without a Country." You can do without a country, but civilized man cannot live without changes of clothing. Nothing so mean and stingy as the man who wants his wife to live in two suit-cases. You want a large trunk, several steamer trunks, several bags, and a leather hat-box. This array of luggage not only impresses foreigners with your importance, but keeps the *portiers* busy pasting labels on your bags and boxes. Nothing so imposing as a lot of luggage covered with foreign labels. If you stop at cheap *pensions* you can always buy a few large yellow, green, and red hotel labels from the *portiers* and paste them on yourself.

Men will naturally take a couple of business suits of inconspicuous and neutral tone that are not easily soiled. A soft hat or cap is essential, while a good heavy mackintosh is much more practical than an overcoat. For ladies most travelers recommend clothing of some dark material, such as blue serge or flannel, with thick boots and hood or cap and heavy veil, always bearing in mind the fact that fancy or showy clothing will cheat the wearer out of many of the joys and delights of ocean travel. For a trip to a Northern climate a "sweater" is an indispensable article of the traveling outfit, while the comfort

of the traveler will be much enhanced by the possession of at least two pairs of shoes, one light, the other a heavy pair for tours afoot.

You have a lot of friends who would like to go to Europe, and they could afford to go much easier than you can, but they don't. They are contented to be squatters in the valley. They will never reach the mountain tops. You will want to make them green with envy by buying a dozen or more Baedekers, unfolding to their startled gaze the large red, yellow, and green maps which they contain, and by the aid of a large magnifying glass pointing out to them the towns and cities which you expect to visit. Baedekers were made for those persons who are not happy until they can classify the fleas on the back of an Alsatian goat or can read the history of the human race while dashing through a tunnel. But you will have to carry along these wonderful *multum-in-parvo* encyclopedias of foreign travel, for many of the highways of European travel will be bare and empty without the remarkable little guide-posts that invest every spot with romantic or historical interest. Take "Presbrey's Information Guide," which gives all the information one needs to have for the full enjoyment of the ocean journey, reserving the Baedekers for the matchless panorama of scenic beauty and historical splendor that is to greet his eyes on the other side; remember, too, that one of the chief charms of Baedekers comes from their careful and leisurely perusal after you return home. It is quite often advisable to invest in the cheaper and more condensed local guides which one may pick up at the news-stands of the various cities that are visited. These give much descriptive and historical information in a very compact way, and form an agreeable introduction to the more elaborate descriptive material found in the more pretentious guides.

The steamer chair is one of the jokes of ocean travel. The joke is at your expense, and you may as well enjoy it on the trip. The steamship company sells you a ticket and then you pay a dollar to sit down. Of course, if you don't like it, you can stand up. Some people are mean enough to stand up for eight days just to beat the deck steward out of his dollar. In selecting the location for your chair it is well to get on the windward side of some one who smokes cheap cigars. This may spoil the fresh crispness of the salt sea air, but it will also kill the smells from the steerage and the kitchen.

If the band plays under your window every morning you will not need to ask the bath steward to wake you at eight o'clock. You will be awake long before that hour, listening to the mellifluous notes of the trombone and the bass drum. When you get better acquainted with the passengers you will do everything you can to encourage the band,—take up a subscription for it and coddle the leader with generous applause. The noise will protect you from the bores who want to tell you all about their travels and their family history. If it is a German band, a little encouragement will bring on a "blow" that will drive all the cranky people off the deck. It will prevent the wholesale grocer from telling you for the third time how he cornered the potato crop in 1903.

You have paid for your ticket, as I said before, but you haven't paid the wages of the crew. Just when and how these fellows should be paid for their services is the subject of much dispute. Of course, you will have to pay them sooner or later. If you follow the advice of the guide-books you will pay the stewards and waiters at the end of the journey, handing them a fixed stipend, just as the box factory pays off its employees in your home town. But if you follow the good American style, you will fee them as you go. It keeps them interested and attentive. They know what they are getting out of you; what they will get out of "the other fellow" is a matter of conjecture. They are only human beings, and they naturally gravitate into close proximity to a sure thing. The daily gratuity keeps them alert, active, expectant.

What is an ocean voyage without seasickness? Of course you have made up your mind to be seasick and you don't want to be disappointed. Seasickness, however, is largely a mental condition. If you have been unfortunate enough to hand a delicious table d'hote dinner to the porpoises, don't say anything about it. The fellow who can boast that he never missed a meal is looked upon as a hero. The passengers get the impression that he has the digestion of a goat. Everybody regards him with silent envy and admiration. He is prompt at his place at the table and eats every meal. He may lose an occasional meal, but the world is none the wiser. He carries his head erect and looks with sympathetic condescension upon the poor devils who are blue behind the gills, who show the traces of a bad night, and who are glued to their steamer chairs all day long, while the steward brings them salty and acid

tidbits to tempt their uncertain appetites. After all, the best cure for seasickness is to keep the stomach busy. Neptune always finds some mischief for idle stomachs to do. Eat five or six meals a day. If you give up a meal, put in another one as quickly as possible. You have already paid the company for your meals, and if the meals will not stay put, keep on eating until they do.

How you will miss your dear friend, the baggage-check! In deep, penitential contrition you will ask forgiveness for all the maledictions you have heaped upon the head of the American baggage smasher. If Sancho Panza had been a traveler in the twentieth century he would have said, "Blessed be the man who first invented baggage-checks." Sleep was a good thing to invent, but how can a man sleep when his baggage is in the hands of strangers who cannot understand the English language? On the Continent your baggage will be weighed the same as any other freight, and you will pay for it by the pound, receiving in return a receipt covered with strange and unintelligible hieroglyphics, which constitutes the only visible evidence you have that you are the owner of the baggage. While this receipt is better than no clue at all, it is a poor substitute for the familiar baggage-check of your native land. Instead of resting serenely in that calm and trustful feeling that comes from the possession of a little pasteboard tag, you will be on the jump as soon as you reach your destination. And when you have "assembled" all your luggage, you climb to the top of the heap and yell like Monte Cristo for a *portier*. No use trying to find one who understands English. You are lucky if you can find out who understands your motions.

If your luggage is to cross the frontier from Germany into France, it will all be piled on a bench, while a fiend with dirty face and greasy hands, who looks like an iron-moulder on a strike, will run his smutty fingers under all your clean linen to see if you have hidden away any cigars, liquor, matches, or playing-cards. To watch these coal-heavers go through your baggage you would think that the entire political and industrial structure of Europe rested upon matches and playing-cards. The grimy officials and the absurd performance are all in striking contrast to the businesslike methods and the clean, dapper, gentlemanly officials which greet you in England or in your own port at New York. After these stokers have wiped their hands on your boiled shirts and underwear, you close your boxes and bags and again throw yourself upon the mercy of the burly highwayman with the blue blouse, who reshoulders your luggage, and you trudge along after him, wondering what he is going to do with you next. He soon builds another pyramid with it, and you stand guard over it while he searches for a carriage to haul you to the hotel. You shout the name of the hotel through all the various changes of accent and inflection. The driver looks at your motions with the intelligence of a Long Island squab. Finally you think of the printed card or letterhead of the hotel stored away in your pocket. You flash it upon him, there comes a gladdening gleam of almost human intelligence into his stony countenance, and off you go to the hostelry of your choice. Always carry a printed card of your hotel in your pocket, for there is no possibility of your pronouncing its name in such a way that the average Frenchman can understand it. I called a taximeter in Paris and said to the driver:

"I want to go to the Hotel Lord Byron."

The jabbering jehu shook his head and shrugged his shoulders.

"I want to go to Hotel Lord Bee-ron," I repeated.

He again gave me a look that was hopelessly and helplessly blank.

I tried another one on him. I said:

"I want to go to Hotel Beer-ong."

He gave his shoulders another shrug and was about to drive off, when I suddenly thought of the envelope on which was printed the card of the hotel. I pulled it from my pocket and showed it to the puzzled cabby, and the gutteral explosions that came forth as he worked his jaw up and down showed that he had seen a great light.

"Oh, wee-wee, Hotay Lor Bee-rah, Hotay Lor Bee-rah."

We climbed in and away we went to "Hotay Lor Bee-rah."

If you happen to be blessed, or cursed, with friends who have traveled all over Europe on thirty dollars and fifty-eight cents, you will want to spend a day or two hunting up those quiet family hotels known as *pensions*. Your friends have given you letters to them, and of course you must present them. These family hotels are great institutions. In America, where we are all a plain-spoken people, we call them boarding-houses. In Europe they print the menus in French, add a few hotel "touches," and call them *pensions*. The *pension* is a boon to those who

want to get away from such vulgar things as elevators, electric lights, steam-heat, and other comforts. Climbing eight flights of stairs to your room and rummaging around in the darkness for candles so you can find the bed add a touch of romance to the situation and make you feel that you are traveling in foreign lands. Better go slow on the candles, for you will find them charged in the bill when you come to settle. You will find several other things in the bill. You will find candles in the bill no matter whether you have burned them or not. If you don't light them, you may as well eat them, for you will have to pay extra for butter and eggs anyway, and a few candles will help to supply the oleagenous elements needed in your food.

Of course you will disregard all the traditions and customs by asking for a fire in your room. If you should chance to find a small stove in your room, you will have to yell like a Comanche Indian before you can persuade the *portier* to bring up coal, and when he brings it up you will get enough to fill a crow's nest, and there will be nothing to light it with. Wood and coal are precious commodities in Europe. They are displayed in the windows of stores the same as diamonds and other jewelry. The reckless manner in which we use pine boards for all sorts of purposes will seem like criminal waste and extravagance after a trip in Europe. Speaking of fires, if you are in Cologne,—and of course you will want to visit Cologne,—you will see a *portier* building a fire in the hallway in your hotel. He is not trying to set fire to the hotel. He is poking wood into a hole in the wall just outside your room, and when you get into the room you will find it full of warm air. It is a great scheme. By this system the smoke and ashes and dirt are all in the hall and not in your room.

If you go to London in October you will want to take a hot-water bag and a high hat,—the hot-water bag to keep you warm at night and the high hat to put you next to warm propositions in the daytime. In Paris you will find steam-heat. In the best London hotels you can have a fire made in the grate in the reception-room or "lounge" by getting up a petition or a subscription. But don't forget the high hat. It needn't be a late shape or pattern. It needn't have any shape at all,—in fact, the older the "vintage" the better. You can dig up the one you were married in, brush it up a little, and it will take you anywhere in London and give you an *entrée* into the most exclusive business circles. Mark the words "business circles." The Londoner does business in a high hat. He will not remove it even while he eats noonday lunch. Keeping the hat on, however, is a European habit not confined to London. If you go to the opèra in Paris you will find the men in the audience keep their hats on until the curtain goes up. Even then they remove them slowly and reluctantly. In London you need not worry about wearing a suit that goes with a high hat. Everything "goes" with a high hat in London. A high hat and a fourteen-dollar brown business suit are not an unusual combination in London. Your American idea of plug hats belonging exclusively to politicians, bartenders, and bunco men doesn't go in London. The grocer's clerk who sells you a pound of tea is very likely to have on a frock coat and a high hat. He may also have a handkerchief tucked into his left coat sleeve.

'Tis sweet to hear the smiling clerk "bay deep-mouthed" as you draw near a hotel after a long and tiresome journey,—but you will neither hear him nor see him. You will never see a real "hotel clerk" again until you plant your feet once more upon American soil. This important individual, who is a national character in our own country, is almost unknown in Europe. You will register with the "secretary" in his office before entering the hotel proper. The secretary is not a lord, or a duke, or a Member of Parliament, as you may imagine from his closely buttoned frock coat and his faultless get-up. He is the secretary to the general-manager of the hotel. If you have letters of introduction, or have telegraphed in advance, he will know you are the real thing, and he will quote you prices on various rooms or suites. If you have not attended to these preliminaries, the secretary is likely to tell you that the rooms are all taken. Having passed the secretary and been admitted to the rotunda of the hotel, you will find what seems to be the office, and you will begin to feel at home, until you learn that it is merely a place for getting your mail and the key to your room. There is no "clerk" to give you the glad hand and call you by your front name, no one to hear your complaints or your kicks.

Be sure to linger long and lovingly over the English breakfast with its cereal breakfast food and its toothsome, deliciously flavored ham and bacon. English pigs are fed on juicy vegetables and other good things instead of corn. On the Continent you will have to live on the memory of American or

English breakfasts. Continental races do not have the "breakfast habit." If a Frenchman eats any breakfast at all, it is merely a hot roll and a cup of coffee, and he wants it brought to his room. The idea that the first meal of the day should be generous and substantial seems to be peculiarly an Anglo-Saxon notion.

You will also miss the sleek, pompous, and well-fed landlord you have known in your native land. In German and Dutch hotels the *portier* and the waiter are the whole thing. The landlord or manager may assign you to rooms, but that is the last you will see of him. From that time on you are in the hands of the *portier* and waiter. You settle for your rooms and meals with the waiter, and all other matters that concern the comfort of guests are in the hands of the *portier*. You will miss many of the little comforts that go to make life worth living in your own country. You will not find a "lift" with red plush cushions and lounge to carry you to the tops of all the towers, cathedrals, and other high buildings. You must use your legs. Such things as baths and stoves and furnaces are all enervating and tend to destroy that physical robustness which you read about but which you seldom see in Europe. No use to look for an American hair-cut, or an American shave, or an American "shine." Europeans run to whiskers, anyway. In Paris the barber-shops derive their greatest revenue from selling false hair to women.

If you are a "strap-hanger" at home, you will have to get rid of the habit in Europe. The first time you grab a strap in the street-car you will be told to sit down or get out. No use of growing indignant when you are denied the American privilege of hanging on a strap. It is not worth going to jail for,—you can wait until you get back to free New York. Each car seats a certain number of passengers and the number is plainly printed on the inside. In The Hague and other cities of Holland an officer stands at each end of the car during rush hours to see that only the allotted number is admitted. In Paris numbered tickets may be found in the rooms near the waiting-stations, which are procured by passengers before they attempt to get on the cars. These numbers are called out by the conductor of the car, and if you happen to hold number 431 you are reasonably certain that the person who holds number 432 cannot get in the car before you do.

Once on a European railroad train, when the door of your compartment is closed and locked, that is the last you will see of any human being until you arrive at the station. No conductor comes through every few moments to tell you how far it is to your destination, no brakeman to keep you company, no "peanut butchers." You will have to poke your head out of the window at each station to see if it is the one you want to get off at. In England you will have to do something more than poke your head out of the window, for the names of the stations are not visible. If you are going out to Purley or some other suburb of London, the only sign you will see is "Bovril" or "Beecham's Pills." But how those dinky little engines run! They whiz through fields and forests and shoot through tunnels and dash through cities at a speed that seems almost incredible when you contemplate the little turtle-back locomotives with drivers hidden from view, with screechy little whistles, and tiny little cabs for the engineers. And very reluctantly you will finally confess to a liking for the cozy compartments which offer such comfortable security against the presence of undesirable passengers. It is true that half the passengers in one of these compartments must ride backward, but this is a small penalty to pay for the privileges of privacy and exclusion to those who do not care to mingle with the variegated sorts and conditions of humanity which fill up the average railway coach.

There is much diversity of opinion as to what is the most convenient form of carrying money in Europe. As a matter of fact, you will not want to carry any money except for the small and incidental expenses of travel. The strain imposed upon your suspenders by the coin of the realm would be too great. You will miss those soft paper bills which you loved to roll up and stick in your vest pocket. Everything is silver and gold and copper. When you do see a banknote you are apt to mistake it for a printed handbill or dodger and throw it away. The art of engraving has not yet found its way into the manufacture of paper money in Europe. In England, when a banknote reaches the bank, it is taken out of circulation before it has a chance to accumulate any bacteria. What you want is some sort of paper token that is readily convertible into the coin of the country you are traveling in. For this purpose I have found the American Express Company's checks the most convenient and the most widly recognized as legal tender for all kinds of obligations. Whether you are eating lunch at an out-of-the-way inn in the Black Forests of Germany or purchasing

trinkets in the Rue de Rivoli in Paris, the express checks are as good as gold and are eagerly cashed by innkeeper and shopkeeper. Being bound in small books and arranged in convenient denominations, you tear them out with all the ease and abandon of the man who tears business cards from a vest-pocket card-book. And you don't realize that you are spending money until the books begin to shrink in thickness and number. When you tender one of these checks in payment for a meal or a pair of shoes the change you receive in gold or silver is not so heavy but that the weight may be distributed evenly through the various pockets of your clothing, and they save you the bother of computing the amount of money you are entitled to receive for a ten-dollar check in any country you happen to be traveling in, for the amount is plainly printed on their face. The only persons who will not accept these checks are the railway ticket sellers, and if this fact is kept in mind much annoyance and inconvenience may be avoided.

Of all the gentry that take advantage of American gullibility, none grabs the travelers' check with such rapacious greed as the Paris shopkeeper. The sight of an American woman on a shopping tour with several of these books on her person is the signal for the most obsequious and servile attention and for a general advance in prices throughout the entire store. While these checks, which are issued not only by express companies but by steamship lines and tourist agencies, answer all the requirements of a convenient and acceptable circulating medium, it is best, as a measure of safety and security, to be fortified with a letter of credit for £200 or more issued by the local banker in your own town. It should be carefully pinned in your inside vest pocket, safe from the nimble fingers of those acquisitive individuals whom one sometimes meets in crowded railway coaches or out-of-the-way places in southern Italy. You will not use the letter of credit except in emergencies such as the loss of your travelers' check-books or other unforseen accidents. You can draw money on this letter of credit in one or more banks in nearly every city and town in Europe, but the bank never opens early enough for a live, active American, and it is not always convenient of access. A letter of credit, however, is a certificate of character, and this, together with your passport signed by the Secretary of State, will give you all the financial and social standing that may be required to meet any emergencies that may arise in European travel. You will want three separate coin-purses,—one for gold, one for silver, and one for copper. And you finally fall in love with the gold pieces of Holland and France. They are beautiful coins and they soon impress you as being real money. By the time you are ready to go home you will find it difficult to repress the wish that gold would take the place of the limp and flimsy rags in the circulating medium of your own country; but when you reach New York how good those " rags " feel and how pleasing the face of the Father of his Country on a twenty-dollar-gold certificate!

And other things will look good to you besides the gold yellow Treasury notes. There are the skyscrapers, not beautiful at all, but how beautiful they look to the wanderer returning home from strange lands! Of course the streets will look dirty,—almost any street will look dirty after being in Berlin, or Paris, or The Hague,—but you won't mind the dirt. American dirt is cleaner than any other dirt. It is newer and fresher. And how good the wideness and vastness, the splendid distances, the boundless spaces, seem to you as you pull out of New York into the country that God made. But you will want to cross again. There are so many things you didn't see. You will want to go abroad before the splendid monuments and palaces of France crumble away,—even now they are badly in need of soap. They were built " in the days of the Empire," when they could squeeze millions out of the people whenever the King wanted to change the wall-paper in his drawing-room. The dear old ladies who show you your seats in the Grand Opera House will not always be there. Some day the people of Vollendam and the Island of Marken will discard their quaint and picturesque Dutch costumes and will look just as much like Americans as the people of Rotterdam. The giant arms of the glorious old windmills that sweep the blue skies of dreamy Holland will give way before the onward march of gasolene. Better go before the electric motor drives the gondolas of Venice into the limbo of forgetfulness. Go while the children are still feeding the pigeons of St. Mark's. Go while the guide at Cologne is still able to show you the chest that contains the bones of the Magi. Some day he will die, and no one else can tell the story with such feeling as the fine old fellow who can show you the exact spot where Napoleon's horses kicked chunks out of the altars in the Cathedral. Go while the old is new and the new is old. Better go now.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE DEMOCRATIC CANDIDATES FOR THE PRESIDENCY.



HIS MASTER'S VOICE.
From the *Evening Star* (Washington).

FOR those who have the welfare of the Democratic party at heart the present must be a somewhat anxious time. Not in many years has the outlook been so unassuring, the prospect of unanimity in the choice of a Presidential nominee so dim. As noticed in our last issue, so thoughtful a politician as Mr. Thomas Mott Osborne is prompted to ask, "Has the Democratic party a future?" There is, however, no lack of aspirants for Presidential honors. The *North American Review* for May contained a series of articles on the Republican candidates; and in the June number of the same magazine are set forth the claims of no fewer than ten possible Democratic nominees. Of these, limitations of space prevent our noticing more than the following:

WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN.

Mr. Augustus Thomas, the well-known playwright, in presenting the claims of Mr. Bryan, says that "the reasons for the nomination of a candidate of either party may be divided broadly into those of expediency and those of sentiment." In the first of these divisions,

> the chief question is the chance of success in the immediately ensuing elections. Under this head must be considered, first, the strength of the man himself measured by the popularity of his position upon questions which divide public opinion; and, secondly, his strength of that kind compared with that of his probable or possible antagonist, the leader of the opposing party.

Mr. Thomas thinks that the question uppermost in the minds of the electors to-day is the undue influence of wealth upon the Government, expressed both overtly and covertly, as shown in "the successful resistance of any attempt within the ranks of the dominant party" to revise the tariff, in the so-called government by injunction, in the punishment of small offenders while "the laws against the big criminals are permitted to slumber," in the "corrupting of executive and legislative officers, the corrupt arrangement with party managers to nullify ante-election promises, and the suppression of the people's voice in the elections themselves."

> Outside the machinery of government the iniquitous effect of the influence of wealth is felt in the discrimination of the railroads in favor of the larger shipper, and the exploitation of the public through the dishonest manipulation of corporate stocks.

Mr. Bryan, more than any other man in the United States, says Mr. Thomas, stands indelibly associated with the protest against all these evils. To his advocacy and influence was due the insertion in the last three Democratic platforms of planks demanding the correction of the evils of railroad discrimination, the vigorous prosecution of trusts, and the revision of the tariff. Moreover, it is

> a fact that the principal reforms which have come to be associated with President Roosevelt in the public mind, and in the demand for which his party is by no means unanimous, were first indicated by Mr. Bryan.

In considering Mr. Bryan's strength as a candidate it is recalled that in 1904, when the Democratic party abandoned the forward movement inaugurated by him, "and retreated to the parade-ground dominated by Mr. Parker," the total Democratic vote fell

1,280,000 behind that of four years before; and when his strength is compared with that of the Republican candidate,—"probably Taft, possibly Roosevelt,"—it is a question whether public faith and allegiance will rally round standards borrowed from Democracy and "raised by Mr. Roosevelt above a mutinous Congress. . . . or whether they will follow the same standards in the hands of Mr. Bryan, who first raised them."

The personal affection of a large body of the Democratic voters is, in Mr. Thomas' judgment, a powerful element in Mr. Bryan's candidature. His Sunday addresses and the lectures delivered by him in his regular tours have probably brought him into contact with more than a million and a quarter of his countrymen, who have thus gained a "high opinion of his sincerity, profundity, and stability."

Mr. Bryan, temporarily deserted by the managers of the so-called conservative wing of his organization, regained and held the hearts of its rank and file by personal and fraternal contact. He has made converts and recruits. Other candidates in the party may command equal respect, but no other can so thoroughly evoke, sustain, and augment the enthusiasm necessary to a militant and progressive and successful campaign.

GOVERNOR FOLK, OF MISSOURI.

Governor Folk has been so much in the public eye, and his fame as an opponent of graft has spread so far and wide, that it seems incredible that it was only fourteen years ago (1894) that, as Mr. T. S. Mosby, his pardon attorney, says, he came from the State of Tennessee, "a young lawyer, lately graduated from Vanderbilt University, and schooled in the best traditions of the South." Seeking no political honors, he devoted himself to the practice of his profession, making it a rule to accept no employment that he did not know to be absolutely honest. His clientage increased, and the young attorney, "who was no dashing orator, no politician with a pull, but one who was learned in the law and diligent in his calling," came to be known as a man that could be relied upon to do his duty. At this time occurred the great strike of street-railway men in St. Louis. The union men engaged Folk, and the strike was settled in a manner agreeable to all parties.

In the campaign of 1900, when certain political bosses were naming a Democratic ticket for the city of St. Louis, there being no available man for the office of circuit attorney, some one sugested Folk. Folk declined.

But the bosses insisted. Folk began to hesitate. Finally he said, "Yes, I will accept the nomination, but if elected I shall obey my oath of office." The bosses heeded not the remark. . . . What was an oath of office in a city where bribery had so long been, as an attorney for some of the boodlers afterward declared, "merely a conventional offense"? How well Folk obeyed his oath of office they soon learned. . . .

The St. Louis bosses threatened to destroy Folk after he had prosecuted the corruptionists, and throughout his term of office he was "hounded, villified, and slandered"; but he kept up the fight, and at the end of his four years he had "convicted more boodlers than were ever before convicted by any single prosecuting officer in the world's history."

His subsequent candidacy for the Democratic nomination for the governorship of Missouri produced "the most spectacular political campaign in the annals of Missouri." Opposed by all officialdom, from Governor to township constable, with the unlimited wealth of intrenched corruption arrayed against him, Folk entered on the contest single-handed, and, breaking down the opposition, secured a practically unanimous nomination.

As Governor of Missouri Mr. Folk has a brilliant record; and the many good laws enacted in response to his recommendations testify to his deep interest in the moral and political, as well as in the material, welfare of his State. Though progressive in dealing with new problems, the genius of Governor Folk is, on the whole, profoundly conservative. He once said: "Let us be conservative in charging wrongdoing; but, once sure of the wrong, let us be radical in its extermination." He has never appealed to class. He knows but one code,—"the laws as they are written, not for the rich nor the poor, nor for labor nor capital, but for all alike." He has vindicated the constitution and the laws with such courage and fidelity that everywhere the name of Folk is known it is known as a synonym of law-enforcement.

JUDGE GRAY, OF DELAWARE.

In presenting the claims of Judge Gray, Mr. T. F. Bayard, chairman of the Democratic State Central Committee of Delaware, says:

Of the many candidates now about to be presented by both the great political parties for the coming conventions to pass upon no one has

had the experience and training which should qualify the nominee of either great party such as Judge Gray has had, and no one who has held office at the gift of the people has rendered a finer or more conscientious account of his stewardship.

Mr. Gray, having been admitted to the Delaware bar in 1863, was appointed Attorney-General for his State in 1879, and was reappointed in 1884. The learning and abilities which he displayed in this office led to his selection as United States Senator from Delaware in 1885. He soon became one of the leaders on the Democratic side. He opposed the so-called "force bill" in 1892; and with regard to trusts, as is well known, he holds that the administration of law in regulation and restraint thereof should be directed toward the individuals who operate them.

At the close of his Senatorial term Mr. Gray was appointed United States Circuit Judge, and his occupancy of this position has afforded further opportunity for the display of his ability. In 1903 Judge Gray was appointed head of the arbitration commission which settled the differences between the anthracite miners and operators; and

to-day his name is a beloved household word among all the coal-miners of the country, and a synonym for justice and fairness with all employers of labor.

Since 1903 other strikes have been referred to him for arbitration, and he has quietly and successfully adjusted the differences in question.

Judge Gray's name was presented to the National Democratic Convention in 1904; but "the circumstances leading to Mr. Parker's nomination were too strong to permit any show of success" for the Delawarean. To-day, "when every one, regardless of party," is seeking a good man for the Presidential office, "many Republicans as well as Democrats find in Judge Gray the man of their choice."

JUDSON HARMON, OF OHIO.

Mr. Edward B. Whitney, writing on the claims of Judge Harmon, says that, for the purpose of familiarizing its occupant with the whole machinery of the federal Government, no office below the Presidency is superior, perhaps none equal, to that of the Attorney-General.

Mr. Harmon was admitted to the bar in 1869 and settled in Cincinnati. In 1878 and again in 1883 he was elected to the bench of the Superior Court of that State, where he was soon joined by Joseph B. Foraker, who afterward went back into active politics. In 1887 Judson Harmon resigned his judgeship to become a partner in a New York law firm, and for more than eight years he was out of public life. In 1895, when Olney was made Secretary of State, President Cleveland appointed Harmon to the vacant attorney-generalship, and the latter continued in the office till 1897. The one feature of Attorney-General Harmon's work now of most public interest is the establishment of the federal power to deal with corporate aggression under the commerce clause of the Constitution. When he took office the general opinion of the bar was that the Sherman Anti-Trust law was impracticable of enforcement. Attorney-General Harmon first and for all time demonstrated its enforceability. He took up the so-called Trans-Missouri case, briefed and argued it himself, and won it by a vote of 5 to 4. He subsequently proposed several amendments to the Anti-Trust law, one of which was the insertion of a clause casting upon the defendants the burden of proof as to matters peculiarly within their own knowledge. Some years later he was retained with F. N. Judson, of St. Louis, as special counsel for the Government for the punishment of unlawful rebates granted by the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railway Company. They recommended that "all its principal officers and agents who had during the period named power and authority over traffic agreements and freight rates be arraigned for contempt of court." The recommendation was not acted upon, and Messrs. Judson and Harmon withdrew from the case. The nomination of Judge Harmon for the Presidency would, Mr. Whitney holds, be an endorsement of his theory of how to deal with corporate abuse and corporate crime.

GOVERNOR JOHNSON, OF MINNESOTA.

Governor Johnson's sponsor in the *North American Review* is Mr. Thomas D. O'Brien, Insurance Commissioner of Minnesota from 1905 to 1907. He maintains that any candidate for the Presidential office "must, first, be worthy, and, second, available, or likely to be elected," and that

what is required in a chief magistrate at this time is honest purpose, intelligence, knowledge of affairs, calm, deliberate judgment, and cool, serene courage, the courage to stay the spoiler's hand, no matter whose it may be; withal he

should be a constructive statesman, for we are in a period of transition.

Though these are very severe tests to apply to any candidate, yet, judged by them, Governor Johnson evinces peculiar fitness for the Presidency.

Governor Johnson has fought his way to his present position under particularly adverse circumstances,—he has, by the way, been newspaper editor, captain of militia, and State Senator,—and he holds the unique position of Democratic Governor of a Republican State. As such he has been a closely watched man; but the Legislature and the other executive officers of the State, though differing from him in politics, have accorded him loyal support; and on his advice "reform after reform has been introduced . . . until now it can be said that Minnesota is one of the best-governed States in the Union."

One characteristic of Governor Johnson is that of going directly to the heart of a situation. Last summer, when a great strike involving some 17,000 miners occurred in the iron mines, the usual demand for troops was made by the Steel Trust. Instead of complying, Mr. Johnson went to the scene of the disturbance, gave definite interpretation to the respective rights of both parties, "and the strike passed into history with a record of less disorder than would have occurred in the affected region under normal conditions in the same length of time."

Governor Johnson, in making appointments to office, has always been careful to select men of the highest standing regardless of political effect.

In Mr. O'Brien's judgment, Mr. Johnson is the most available candidate the National Democratic convention could select. He is

> a Democrat in the prime of life who has succeeded in everything he has undertaken, who as Governor of one of the great progressive States has compelled the love of his party and the admiration of his opponents, who has in his private or public life nothing to explain or apologize for, and who, by reason of his residence, antecedents, race, and personality, gives the very highest promise of success.

DOES PROHIBITION PAY?

WITH the current number of *Appleton's Magazine* is inaugurated a series of articles under the above caption, concerning which the editor, in his introductory note, says:

> In almost every consideration of what we characterize broadly as "the liquor question," the point really at issue is prohibition, whether or not that word comes to the fore. People are not discussing temperance in the sense of moderation, on which there is no respectable difference of opinion. . . . Few now deny the wisdom of some restrictive legislation as to the manufacture and sale of alcoholic beverages. . . . Altogether outside the common range of discussion as to the efficacy of legislation there is a question truly American and deserving of reply: Does prohibition pay?

Applying the individual test, Mr. George C. Lawrence discusses the question from the economic side. He begins his article with a reference to a notable dinner which was given twenty-two years ago to a famous physician. There were nineteen guests, all of whom applied themselves assiduously to the rare wines placed before them. The host meanwhile

> sat at the head of the table nibbling dry toast and sipping mineral water. "Isn't that pathetic?" said one of the guests to the famous physician. "Yes," was the cynical reply, as the medical man poised his glass of wine in mid-air. "Nineteen fools and one wise man."

It appears that eighteen years later the twelve survivors of this gathering met at another dinner. *Ten out of the twelve drank mineral water.* For reasons of health or of business they had become convinced that liquor-drinking did not pay. In that incident, Mr. Lawrence thinks, is to be found the true explanation of the present widespread legislation against liquor-selling. "Look around among your friends and associates in business," he says, "the men you know and meet, and note the change within your own recollection." In the army at the close of the Civil War practically every officer drank; "to-day one-third are total abstainers, and drunkenness costs a man his commission."

Economic conditions,—in common parlance, "It doesn't pay,"—form the great underlying factor of the anti-drink movement, which is primarily neither moral nor religious, but "a cold matter of dollars and cents." Steadily man has been forced to the conclusion that he cannot afford to drink.

The economic aspects of the anti-drink

movement are many. There is the all-important one of productivity.

Man is, if you will, simply an engine, and the question of running that engine most cheaply and efficiently is the question of its highest productivity, its greatest economic value. . . . Purchasers of labor,—whether that labor be of a sewer digger or a Senator,—want results from the human machine. And it has been demonstrated that the human machine run on alcohol falls far behind that which is not. . . . No one has ever made a practical internal explosive engine operated by gunpowder, though many have tried. No one has ever evolved an efficient human machine working on alcohol, though millions have tried.

In discussing the aspect of longevity, Mr. Lawrence presents some remarkable figures prepared by the eminent English actuary, Sir Victor Horsley. Where the average mortality among adult males of all classes is 1000, that of saloon-keepers is represented by 1642, and of total abstainers by 560. Out of 100,000 inhabitants at thirty years of age, only 44,000 ordinary persons reach the age of seventy years, whereas 55,000 abstainers do so. Consequently, reckoning the population of the British Isles at 44,000,000, it is evident that if they were all abstainers the kingdom would be the gainer every year by more than 4,000,000 work-years; and, figuring the average annual earning capacity at $500, temperance, if adopted in England for economic reasons, would increase the labor output by $2,200,000,000 annually!

In the United States, according to life-insurance tables, the percentage of the actual death loss to the expected loss was: among abstainers, 78 to 100; among non abstainers, 96 to 100. The increase in mortality among the Indians, when alcoholic liquors were sold to them, is a matter of common knowledge.

The economic waste of alcohol is recognized by many classes of professional men. Lawyers are no longer drinking men, as many of them were in the days of Aaron Burr and Daniel Webster. Fifty years ago many a doctor steadied his nerves for an operation with whisky. To-day few, if any, do so. Why? Simply because it doesn't pay. With the workingman the question is still more vital. Figures show that he, too, is decreasing his consumption of drink. He has found that alcohol is not the right kind of fuel for the human machine, and that therefore it is an economic waste to use it. In many cases the use of intoxicants while on duty is prohibited. Some firms require their employees to sign a pledge.

The higher one goes in the social scale the more general is the acceptance of the fact that the use of liquor is economically wrong for the individual; and the same economic law applies to groups of individuals, the towns and cities. "This is the explanation of the national spread of prohibition which has made 55 per cent. of the country, with 33,000,000 inhabitants, 'dry territory.'"

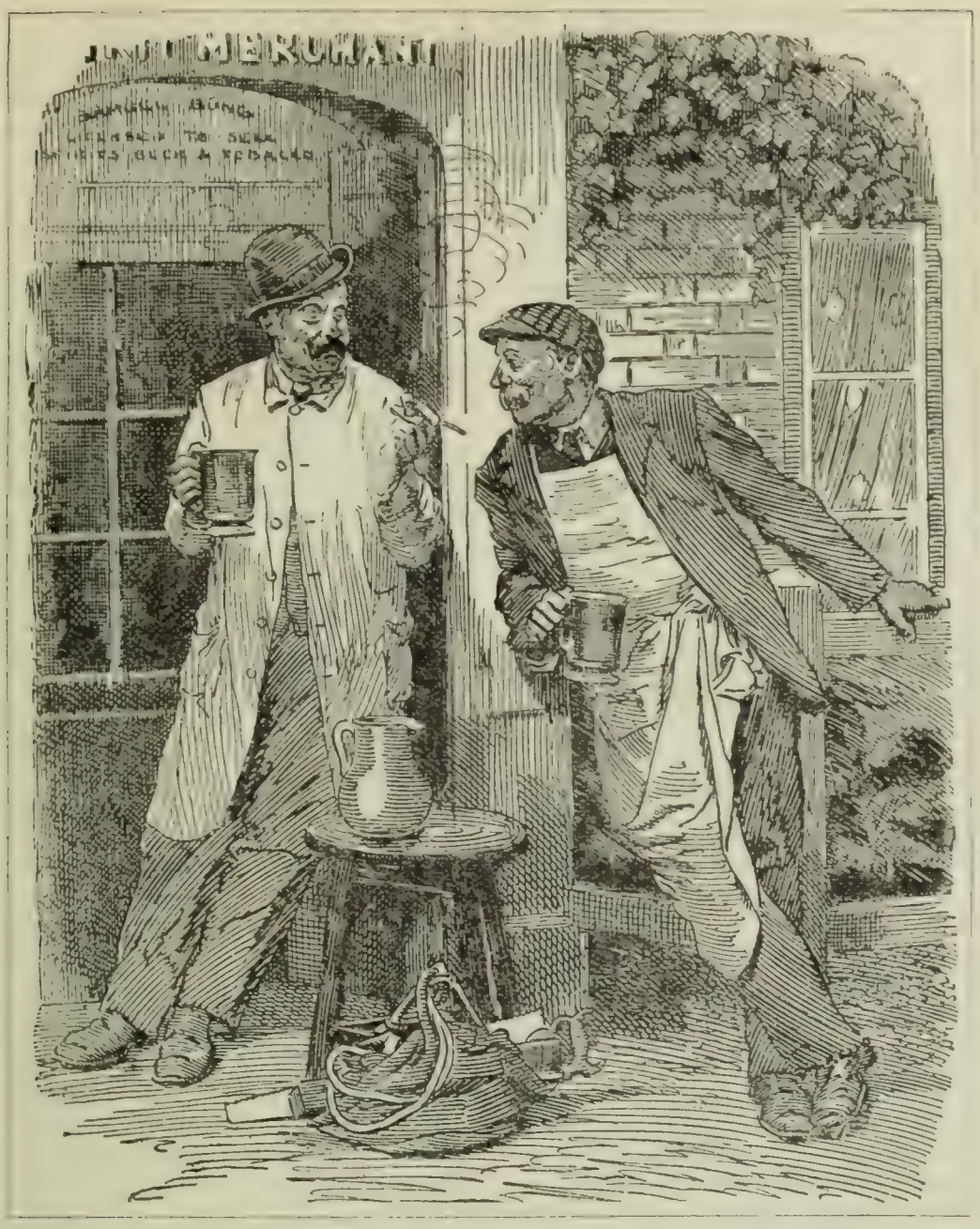
COMMON SENSE ABOUT THE ENGLISH LICENSING BILL.

NOT in a long while has the atmosphere of British politics been disturbed by such a storm as that produced by the government's Licensing bill. Anything that trenches on what the brewers and the beer-retailers are pleased to call their "vested interests" has an effect similar to that of the proverbial red rag on a bull; and the liquor-dealers and the brewers combine to fight tooth and nail in their common defense. When one comes down to hard facts, however, it is found that those engaged in the manufacture and the sale of liquor have somewhat exaggerated ideas in regard to their "rights," as is well illustrated in two articles in the June number of the *Contemporary Review*, by Sir Thomas P. Whittaker, M.P., and Sir Oliver Lodge, respectively.

"It is not the drinks themselves," says Sir Oliver, "that should be reprobated."

Reprobation should be kept for the conditions which adulterate and render noxious the liquid, and all the other conditions which tempt man to take more than is good for him. One of these conditions is said to be the mode of retailing to the multitude, whereby social intercourse and comradeship can only be obtained in places where custom requires the ordering of drink.

A number of earnest people think that the present British system of licensing private persons to retail liquor for their own profit, and so to thrive on the excess drinking of the community, has turned out ill. Assuming they are right, in what way, asks Sir Oliver, does reform of the conditions of sale affect the producer? There is no doubt the change in the licensing system will fall a little hard



MEASURE FOR MEASURE.

FIRST TOPER (discussing Mr. Asquith's Licensing bill): "Does he want to stop our beer?"
SECOND TOPER: "Not likely. If he do, 'ow's 'e goin' to get the money for our old-age pensions?"

From *Punch* (London).

on the retailing dealers, but, as Sir Oliver remarks, they must realize that it is in the interest of the nation.

It is a little hard on a man in the Reserves, sometimes, after he has settled down to a peaceful home industry, to be called out and sent to a seat of war. But it is for the good of the nation, and he acquiesces. . . . People do not cry out when called upon for sacrifice for the national good.

The chief outcry over the present Licensing bill has come from the shareholders in liquor concerns and from the brewers who have also become retailers. With regard to the latter, Sir Oliver very pertinently remarks:

If, for the sake of extra profits some of them have stepped out of their province, have made themselves responsible for retailing as well, and have regarded public-house licenses as part of their assets,—well they must stand the racket of what may have been wisdom in the past, and may turn out unwisdom in the future. It was a speculation, and it may succeed or it may fail.

Sir Thomas Whittaker says that all the talk of the retailers about robbery and confiscation is sheer impertinence, inasmuch as no license-holder has any *right* to a renewal of his license; he has only an *expectation* of its renewal.

With regard to the loss which the retailers may sustain, Sir Thomas points out that dur-

ing the time limit of fourteen years provided for in the bill there will be a large reduction in the number of licenses, for which compensation will be paid to the amount of $12,000,000, and that the amount of license values to be provided for at the expiration of the time limit will be about $415,000,000. Toward this many brewery companies have already set aside substantial reserve funds, and it is probable that the sum actually to be made up at the end of the time limit will not exceed $300,000,000. To provide this amount the trade would have to set aside annually about $15,000,000,—"a comparatively small and perfectly manageable sum." Further, a considerable sale of drink would be transferred from the closed houses to the survivors.

As mentioned by Sir Oliver Lodge, the loudest objectors to the Licensing bill are shareholders in companies engaged in the liquor traffic. Sir Thomas Whittaker shows that many of these companies are overcapitalized and imprudently managed. Of sixty-one companies cited, four are in liquidation, and fifty-seven failed to pay any dividend on either their ordinary or preference shares last year. "Those concerns which are weakest and most need ample reserve funds are precisely those which have distributed in dividends nearly all their profits, and made the least provision for times of stress and difficulty," and it is from these that most of the outcry comes. On the other hand, investigation demonstrates the fact "that moderate capitalization, sound finance, good reserves, and substantial dividends have gone together." Put briefly, the results of Sir Thomas' inquiry show that the sound, well-managed concerns will be easily able to adjust their finances during the time limit which is proposed.

SOME PROPHESIES OF A WOMAN SUFFRAGIST.

THE battle for woman suffrage has now been waging in America for more than half a century. That the cause has a large and constantly increasing number of stanch supporters among college women there can be no doubt; yet other women,—many of them prominent ones,—have declared themselves unalterably opposed to it in principle and in practice, writes Miss Annie R. Ramsey in the current number of *Lippincott's*.

The inception of the movement antedates the birth of the Republic; for two days before the signing of the Declaration of Independence the State of New Jersey changed the wording of the enfranchisement clause of its Provincial Chart from "Male freeholders worth fifty pounds" to "*All inhabitants* worth fifty pounds," thus giving the ballot to women as well as to men. As democratic principles and ideas spread, the property qualification became very unpopular; and in 1807 a law was enacted under which only white males whose names were on the State or county list were permitted to vote, women and negroes being disfranchised. It was not till 1847 that any concerted action was taken toward the enfranchisement of women. Wyoming was the first State to give them the ballot (1869); and since then Colorado, Utah, and Idaho have followed her example.

In the last fifteen years the suffragist army has been largely recruited from "the most intelligent and reflective part of the community"; and when such a stage is reached in any movement founded on a plea whose abstract justice is admitted, "it is certain that the end will soon be attained; and it is no particular foresight which prophesies that woman suffrage will eventually be tried."

Four arguments of the anti-suffragists are disposed of as follows:

(1) It is said that women will not vote when they get the ballot, because the majority of women do not want to vote.

No, of course not! Who does want to vote just for the sake of voting? But give a woman something to vote about, and she is not slow in doing it. In three successive Wyoming elections 90 per cent. of the women voted, as against 80 per cent. only of the men.

(2) It has been prophesied that, once the poll-habit is formed, the house and children will be neglected.

It does not appear that a man neglects his shop or office in order to vote: why then should a woman take a different stand in regard to her business?—for assuredly home-keeping and child-training are the business of all women happy enough to possess a home and children.

(3) The effect of the ballot given to

woman will be the degradation of her character.

Is it possible that thinking about politics is so degrading? How have men escaped contamination? Are reading and discussion upon themes and schemes of *good* government so pernicious that no woman can approach them and retire unsoiled? What we say among ourselves and in our homes might surely be said on a slip of paper with as little harm to our morals.

Do the prophets mean that going to the polls on election day is degrading? It has been claimed that the coming of women to the polls has improved the condition thereof.

The prophecy may be founded on the fact that voters are not exempt from military and jury duty. Priests,—who do not even give sons to the State,—are practically so exempt; and doctors rarely sit on a jury. And women to-day follow the drum as nurses quite as faithfully and fearlessly as their brothers, the chaplain and the doctor.

(4) That the vast majority of women are uninformed, and not informable, on political subjects; that they will be the followers of the most successful intriguer and "ward heeler."

So they may for a time; and I would respectfully submit that in these things they would imitate the men they knew best. Very little else could be looked for at first, if every woman fit or unfit rushed to the polls; but the mass of women is being slowly educated.

The thought and energies of many earnest women have for thirty-five years been devoted to this subject of education and uplifting, and the result must be forthcoming in future generations.

The *Lippincott* suffragist condenses the old prophecies with their refutation into the following form of recapitulation:

(1) Woman suffrage will be tried; perhaps not soon, but in no very distant time.

(2) It will not destroy the home and woman's work therein.

(3) It will not degrade woman or produce any very great change in her character.

(4) It will not fail because of woman's indifference.

(5) It will not overwhelm our present Government by a great tide of crude and ill-considered opinion. It is far more likely, for a while at least, to bring strength to reform and lifeblood to vital issues.

PORTO RICANS AND AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP.

NOW that Porto Rico has become United States territory, the inhabitants of that island cannot understand why citizenship is extended to foreigners after a few years' residence, and yet is denied to those who are natives of territory of the United States, says Mr. Frank Feuille in the new magazine, *The American Colonial Review and Intertropical Magazine* (also published in Spanish under the title *Revista Colonial Americana y Magazine Intertropical*). Owing to its proximity to our Atlantic seaboard, and its favorable location in the track of commerce between that seaboard and the Isthmus of Panama, the island will in time, this writer thinks, become as well known to the people of the United States as any territory on the mainland. It has an agreeable climate, the soil is very productive, a good school system has been established, hundreds of miles of good macadamized roads traverse the island, and the construction of highways is being rapidly extended. A large number of American citizens are now located there permanently, engaged in agriculture and in industrial enterprises.

No one now doubts that the island will remain under the Stars and Stripes, and, according to Mr. Feuille, the natives, with but few exceptions, desire no other destiny for it; "but they ask to be permitted to come under the flag with all the attributes of American citizenship." He says:

> It is a well-known fact that for years prior to our acquisition of the island many of its people lived in the hope that the future would bring them under the sovereignty of the United States. They sought for political ideals in the history of our country, and pointed to Washington and Lincoln as the two great models of civic virtue.

Congress has given the Porto Ricans a territorial government. The island pays no revenue to the national Government, but all the public dues are appropriated to local uses exclusively; when abroad the Porto Ricans receive the same protection from our Government as that accorded to our citizens; they may come and go between the island and the mainland and bring with them their goods and chattels as freely as any American citizen; so that in everything but name they are citizens of the United States.

There are those who hold that the Porto Ricans should be satisfied with the many advantages that have come to them under the flag; but such persons overlook the fact that the Porto Ricans' desire for American citizenship is purely sentimental. The aspiration to citizenship is akin to patriotism, and it should be encouraged. Moreover, the Porto Rican asks for citizenship in order that he may have a share in the upbuilding of our institutions. He hopes that some day his island may become a State, and he realizes that without citizenship this can never come to pass.

On the score of religion, civilization, and racial condition there is nothing of a basic character to prevent Porto Rico and its people from being incorporated into the United States.

Christianity is the religion of the island, and so it is of the United States. Its civilization, though different from ours in some details, is western in its fundamental principles, and so is ours. . . . The population of the island, like that of the United States, is composed of Caucasians and descendants of Africans. According to the census, the former are in the majority in Porto Rico. Some pronounced Indian types are still to be found there, and, no doubt, there is a mixture of Indian blood among the people, but whatever is left of the Indians has long since been merged in the body of the population and has lost its Indian characteristics. So that there are no racial conditions in the island that are not found in the United States.

An argument advanced against granting citizenship to the Porto Ricans is that they cannot adapt themselves to our political institutions.

If by that is meant that they are not now well versed in the practical workings of our Government, the point may be conceded. It cannot be expected of them, in the short space of time since the change of sovereignty, to have acquired full knowledge of our system. Had they done so, the fact would entitle them to the distinction of being the most wonderful people in history. The true test of their adaptability does not require them to be familiar at this time with our political organizations, but if they have shown a desire and aptitude to learn our ways of government, that is sufficient. That they have done so and are now doing so is demonstrated by the record they have made for themselves under the civil government established for them by Congress.

The natural inclination of any people is to adhere to the laws under which they have been educated for generations; yet the Porto Rican House of Delegates voted to repeal all the laws of Spain considered incompatible with the American ideas of government, and adopted administrative legislation in harmony with that prevailing in the States.

In order to grant the Porto Ricans citizenship it will not be necessary to change their present form of government with its appointive upper House in the Assembly, which form of government, Mr. Feuille says, has answered every purpose well. To this remark the editor of the *American Colonial Review*, Mr. L. V. de Abad, takes exception. Under "Editorial Notes" in the same number he says:

We cannot agree with the writer . . . where he speaks of the merit of the political formula or status of Porto Rico. Contrary to Mr. Feuille's opinion, we do not believe that it results in the best interests of the people, either of Porto Rico or of the United States, when viewed from the standpoint of America's interests. The present constitution of the island, with its upper House made through appointments by the President of the United States and its bureaucratic character and functions, is opposed to the democratic spirit of American institutions. On the other hand, it has been a bitter disappointment to the Porto Ricans, and, as a matter of fact, a step backward in the field of the diplomatic achievement of the United States. . . . We call attention to the fact that there are but two political parties in Porto Rico, and that both of their platforms hold out self-government as the *desideratum* of the people,—a thing very distinct from the present system.

To the argument that the large percentage of illiteracy in the island makes the granting of citizenship undesirable, Mr. Feuille rejoins that citizenship and suffrage are by no means synonymous terms, and that they are quite distinct from each other. He also makes the point that the protection of the Panama Canal when completed, and the maintenance of its neutrality, will devolve upon the United States, and that for these purposes a naval base will be required. No better base than Porto Rico could possibly be found.

It is our territory, rich in its natural resources, with a million of people whose devotion and respect for the flag can be assured by conferring American citizenship on them. They are making great moral and material progress, and, with their status in the nation definitely established, the island would become a strong, loyal American community which could be depended upon to protect our navy base in case of war.

The American members of the insular government favor the admission of Porto Ricans as citizens of the nation, and the President, in two annual messages to Congress, has recommended that the privilege be granted to them, and yet Congress has failed to act. It is to be hoped that this act of simple justice will not long be withheld from a people who have shown in many ways that they are more deserving of it than others on whom the privilege has been conferred.

THE GROWING SOUTH.

UNDER the above heading President Edwin A. Alderman of the University of Virginia gives a very comprehensive article in the *World's Work* for June. Taking as his particular theme the "building spirit now at work in the States of the South," he says that, to understand properly the present South, one must have for a background five other Souths. Up to 1830 there was what he terms "the nationalistic and imperial South." From 1830 to 1860 was the "self-centered and defensive South." The attitude of buoyant nationalism and growth of the former period now changed into one of introspection and defense.

This is the South that has fixed itself in the imagination of men. This is the South that, under a generation of harsh criticism, developed abnormal popular sensitiveness, so that it is still very hard for a man who loves the South and knows its virtues and tragedies to criticise it bluntly, or for the people themselves, who have endured that criticsm, and suffered under these tragedies, to receive such criticsm impersonally and patiently. . . . This defensive South was a land wherein a tumultuous love of liberty and of chartered rights existed side by side with human slavery; wherein aristocracy and democracy went arm in arm together for the last time in human history.

The period from 1861 to 1865 saw the militant South "counting it a privilege and a glory to stake all for its faiths and theories on the issues of war." To this succeeded the submerged South (1865-1880), "the silent, the enduring, the patient, the grim South, walking in an economic and social valley of the shadow of death."

Our poor human nature has never been put to a severer test than was this enduring South; and our poor human nature has nowhere endured that test more finely. For the first time in history it was sought to place over a white race as their rulers a black race, recently held by them in slavery. . . . It was a sad time, and left behind a bitter deposit.

From 1880 till the present time there has been what President Alderman designates as "the emergent and growing South," transferring its energies from combating and enduring to building and growing." The Southern States devoted their chief energies to education; and here many difficult conditions had to be faced. When plantation life, instead of community life, was the unit, the free public school was not possible. The South was sparsely settled; it was biracial,



DR. EDWIN A. ALDERMAN.

and it was the overburdened section of America.

No other Americans have ever known, in its direst form, the discipline of war and defeat. No other region ever lost in less than a decade over one-tenth of its population, three and a half billions of its wealth, and the very genius of its life. No other region except Poland ever knew such losses; and Poland ceased to exist. The year 1900 had come and gone before the South had regained its per capita wealth of 1860.

There was also the prime difficulty of "an untaught and backward race, newly and suddenly projected from slavery to citizenship and economic responsibility."

How successfully these difficult conditions were coped with is seen in the interesting data which President Alderman gives. Forty-five per cent. of all their public revenues are expended by the Southern people upon education; they have increased their school revenue $11,590,000 in the last five years; 650 public high-schools have been established in the same period; 120 institutions of higher learning have been revived or established; and to-day there is scarcely a town of 3000 population in the Southern States that does not have its system of public schools free to all. Also, the percentage of illiteracy among whites has been reduced from 25 per cent. to 15 per cent., and among the colored

race from 87 per cent. to 45 per cent. General Assemblies devote one-half of their revenue and two-thirds of their time to the passage of laws relating to the welfare of youth.

Of the negroes' achievement, suffice it to say that the negro race owns nearly $300,000,000 worth of property; from absolute illiteracy they have, as stated above, become literate to the extent of practically 50 per cent.; 173,352 farms are owned by negroes; and 2,600,000 colored children are enrolled in the common schools. "Is there," President Alderman asks, "any parallel in history to such progress under such conditions?"

On the attitude of the white race toward the negro, the following things have been settled "at the court of present public opinion in the South":

(1) That the white race shall control the political development of the Southern States.

(2) That, in insisting upon absolute social separateness, the South is pursuing a policy of justice, both to the negro as a race and to the higher groups that inhabit this nation.

(3) That the emphasis laid by Armstrong, the most heroic figure in the whole struggle and the wiser leader of the negro race, upon training in the industrial and manual arts, promises the best returns in the development of the masses of that race.

(4) That no form of peonage or helotry shall creep into the life of the Southern people.

(5) That the negro shall be trained for citizenship, and that the South shall exert intelligent and determining influence upon that training, because it is its duty so to act.

(6) That the final policy of the South toward the colored man shall be a scientific investigation as to the facts of his progress, causing its thinking people to discriminate between the good individual negro and the negro considered as a mere perplexing problem in sociology.

With regard to the constructive rural changes in the South, President Alderman remarks that agriculture remains, as of old, the chief economic interest. The great plantation has been supplanted by small farms, necessitating intensive and diversified production. Under this great subdivision formerly ill-tilled and untilled lands are now being made to yield fifty or sixty bushels of corn to the acre, where the yield was only twenty bushels; and when this becomes generally the case the "basis of material prosperity will be gained for the attainment of those higher things which the heart of man desires."

Last year 2400 farmers from other States came into Virginia and invested $10,000,000 in farming. In the South Atlantic States the area of improved lands has increased 62 per cent. since the passing of slavery, while the increase in the actual number of farms doubled between 1880 and 1900. The production of garden vegetables, an unknown enterprise in 1861, left $85,000,000 in Southern pockets in 1900.

Side by side with this rural growth there has been a "resistless growth" of the cities and towns. Thirty years ago Massachusetts bought the South Carolina cotton crop, converted it into cloth, and pocketed $100,000,000. To-day South Carolina does its own converting, and keeps the $100,000,000.

Six thousand enterprises for the conversion of raw materials into salable products began operations in the South in 1906. To-day it is using its own accumulated wealth as working capital. Its total property values in 1908 exceed those of 1860 by $6,000,000,000.

As regards the political outlook, whereas before the war the Southern voter was perhaps the best-informed man in America on national politics, and careless about the needs of his own township, now his interest in the Presidency or the Philippines is mild as compared with his zeal for the schools and highways of his county. This detachment from national politics is, however, abnormal and temporary.

> The reuniting of Southern political ability to national service must wait upon time to free it utterly from hesitation and fear arising from the presence of the African in our society. . . .

When this fear is swept out, the reign of leadership dependent on that fear will be swept out also. "An inherently capable and pure political genius will be loosed," and "Southern men will win the Presidency, because they will incarnate the things the people desire a President for. After a half century of national effacement, the South is cool-headed enough to know that the regaining of its prestige in federal politics will be brought about in no frantic, hysterical way, but by educational influences and profound changes in point of view.

"There will be a rebirth of party government, and two or more parties representing the intelligence and patriotism of these States will divide, debate, and consider issues on their merits."

ROMANCE OF THE COBALT MINING DISTRICT.

MANY mining towns have histories that read like fairy tales, but it would be difficult to imagine one more romantic than that of the town and district of Cobalt, some 300 miles north of Toronto. When the preliminary work of constructing the Temiskaming & Northern Railway was in progress, writes Mr. Frederic Robson in the *Canadian Magazine,* the excavators

had been blasting their way through rocks which glistened with silver veins, yet they did not value the lumps for other purposes than most excellent railroad ballast. At one place on the road they cut through the end of a cliff from which hundreds of thousands of dollars' worth of silver has since been taken. The blackened, heavy, rough fragments were cursed as intolerable barriers to a railway. Had you mentioned that the ballast for the track was worth about $5000 a ton, what a laugh there would have been! Meanwhile the construction task was rushed ahead, and millions went begging for an owner.

A couple of weeks later, as two lumber contractors were strolling through the woods near Cobalt Lake, they noticed a silver vein "that had indiscreetly poked its head above the surface of the ground," and, marking the spot, they lost no time in forwarding their application form to the Mining Registry Office. Since then the property has brought them several fortunes; and it gives no sign of playing out.

In November, 1903, Professor Miller, the provincial geologist of Ontario, in company with Professor Parks, of the Dominion Survey, had visited the district; and the reports made by these gentlemen have proved to be remarkably accurate. They held "that it was a matter of only a few years when every foot of the land would be prospected, with the probability of finding important bodies of ores anywhere among the rocks." Professor Miller picked up some pieces of glittering rock with blue streaks running through them, and he exclaimed: "We shall call this place after the blue; we shall call it 'Cobalt.'"

A French-Canadian blacksmith made a remarkable discovery in a remarkable way.

If you meet him to-day on the streets of some Eastern city, or lolling in the comforts of a Pullman car, he will tell you that one day four years ago he was busy at his forge, at the northern end of Cobalt Lake, when he spied a red fox in a nearby bush. It was a very impudent, curious sort of a fox, and it jarred on his tired nerves. He resented being watched even by a fox, and so, picking up his hammer, he flung it with might and main at Reynard. . . . He threw a good hammer, and therefore felt called upon to go over to where it lay. He saw that it had struck a rock, and that the blow resulted in a bright metallic streak, which he at first attributed to lead in the ore. Samples of the ore sent to Toronto, however, showed a very high grade of silver in paying quantities. Thus the combination of a French-Canadian blacksmith, a hammer, and a fox worked another discovery of surpassing importance.



SILVER STREET, COBALT.



THE COBALT RAILROAD STATION.

The Trethewey and Coniagas Mining companies have evolved from two locations made at Cobalt in May, 1904, by Mr. W. G. Trethewey, the name Coniagas being made up of the chemical symbols of cobalt (Co), nickel (Ni), silver (Ag), and arsenic (As). Rails were not laid to these mines till October, 1904; nevertheless, in two months of that year 158 tons of ore, worth $111,887, were sold and shipped.

Discovery followed discovery so rapidly that in 1906 the production had reached a value of $4,000,000; and to the present Cobalt silver has brought mine-owners over $10,000,000 in cold cash. It is the opinion of mining engineers that Cobalt will live at least twenty years more with its present evidences of vigor.

As a mining town Cobalt has one unique characteristic: it is a temperance town. Not a drop of liquor is dispensed legally from one year's end to the other; and the only place where the miners can obtain strong drink is four miles distant.

As a municipality, however, the place is a failure.

Huge chunks of rock in the middle of the road play havoc with the horse and vehicle that attempt a passage over them. Garbage is thrown into the backyards; cows and pigs feed on the refuse lying along the main street; there is no local water to drink, and nearly every drop consumed is brought from Montreal and sold at 50 cents a gallon. . . . Rents of mere shacks run from $50 to $60 a month.

On the other hand, obedience to the law rules in Cobalt; and the town has been free from the violence and turmoil generally incident to mining camps.

Cobalt is at the present moment passing under a cloud. The success of the paying mines led to innumerable wildcat propositions, which were sprung on an unsuspecting public. While there are two score undoubtedly valuable properties in the district, there is an equal number of companies exploiting mines that may turn out profitably or the other way. The foolish scramble of a year or so ago for mines in this mysterious district afforded unscrupulous promoters and brokers opportunities to set their traps.

Brokers who have never been within twenty miles of their property, and who very often know next to nothing about mining, have adopted the scheme of issuing gorgeously colored literature descriptive of their holdings. If you called at their offices you would see samples of ore containing gold, silver, and copper strewn liberally about the desks, and the stock-seller would carelessly chip you off a few leaves of the silver and tell you that the company *expected* to be shipping that sort of stuff in a few months.

Thousands of dollars passed thus from the unwary, and about a year ago came the utter collapse of "The Cobalt Boom." To put money into a Cobalt mine that is paying good dividends is a pretty fair investment; but investment in a *prospective* mine had better be left to some one on the spot.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN THE MACEDONIAN QUESTION.

TWO highly significant developments in the apparently interminable Macedonian problem marked the history of the past few weeks in the Balkans. Baron Speck von Sternburg, the German Ambassador at Washington, made a noteworthy statement on behalf of his government, setting forth Germany's attitude, and the entire Near Eastern question was discussed at length in the Russian Duma. In publishing the statement of the German Ambassador the *Outlook* gives editorially a clear, illuminating outline of the whole situation, the substance of which we reproduce here.

The treaty of San Stefano, which brought peace between Russia and Turkey [after the last war] provided that Macedonia should enjoy a large degree of autonomy under a Christian governor. But the European governments felt that Russian influence, already predominant in the Balkans at that time, would receive further and unwarrantable acquisition of power; and the Congress of Berlin . . . at which all the great European nations were represented, changed the provisions of the treaty of San Stefano regarding Macedonia, and substituted a promise by all the powers to institute needed reforms in Macedonia, and to give to that province as much as possible a government which should be under international supervision.

The powers have completely failed in the performance of this duty. Several years ago, however, Russia and Austria, as the countries most immediately interested, were intrusted with a special mission, and in 1903 the emperors of Russia and Austria met at Mürzsteg in the Austrian Alps and concluded an agreement, as a result of which Europe's intervention in Macedonia became for the first time direct. Two organs of control, or buffers, were created between the Turkish authorities and the Christian peasants of Macedonia. The first buffer consisted of two civil agents, one a Russian, the other an Austrian, who were authorized to control the action of the Turkish authorities. They were instructed to shadow Hilmi Pasha, the Turkish inspector-general, to indicate to him at every point the particular reforms which they thought would prove helpful, and to listen to the complaints of Christian inhabitants. Unfortunately, the investigations of these complaints had always to be held in the presence of a Turkish functionary; and under these circumstances, with the traditions of six centuries of vengeance from Turkish officials, no Christian peasant would dare tell the whole truth. The conditions in Macedonia under the "unspeakable Turk" grew so intolerable as at last to arouse a popular sentiment for the oppressed population, and the powers give some indication of greater readiness to lay aside their jealousies and act together.

The ultimate pacification and development of Macedonia can best be brought about by the introduction of railways. Under a right conferred upon her by the treaty of Berlin, Austria now proposes to connect her railway, which reaches to her southern frontier through the Turkish sanjak, or province, of Novipazar, with the Turkish railway northward from Salonika, the Turkish port on the Ægean Sea. As will be seen, this would give Austria and Germany a through line from north to south. As a counterbalance Russia proposes to build a road across the Balkans from the Black Sea to the Adriatic, connecting lines operating in the countries in which her influence has been hitherto predominant. The official joint investigations of Russia and Austria have accomplished some good; the interlacing of Macedonia by two great European railways will probably do more. But the only permanent and radical reform would be a return to the treaty of San Stefano, and the establishment for Macedonia of self-government under a European protectorate.

In his published statement, the German Ambassador says:

From a general point of view Germany holds the opinion that the maintenance of the *status quo* is in the interest of all the powers. Germany agrees with the whole civilized world that the unbearable state of affairs in Macedonia urgently calls for a remedy, and that steps must be taken to put a stop to the continuous bloodshed, murder, and outrages there. But Germany is convinced that all measures bearing upon this subject will only have a possibility of success if they receive the firm support of all the powers, acting in absolute harmony with each other. Germany is ready to consider seriously and favorably any suitable proposal, from whatever side it may come, by which the present state of affairs in Macedonia can be remedied and is prepared to give her full consent hereto, provided that it meets the consent of the other powers. The question, What measures are most suitable? is a matter of discussion. At the first glance it seems doubtful to the German Government if a larger or smaller increase of the police force would give the desired result, but she is far from rejecting this idea *ab initio* as unfeasible. Germany regards with some skepticism, however, the idea of placing the command of the Turkish troops in the hands of Christian officers, even if this is done by allowing European officers to direct the movements of the troops without their being actually in command of such troops when actually operating. In any case, it holds the opinion that the task of elaborating practical measures destined to change or at least to ameliorate the state of affairs in Macedonia and its deplorable features should best be confided to the representatives of the powers at Constantinople.

"MACEDONIA" IN THE RUSSIAN DUMA.

In a recent address to the Duma the Russian Foreign Minister defined the Mürzsteg agreement as a "mutually disinterested obligation, not barren of results to Macedonia." He cited (we quote the *Russkaiya Vyedomosti*) the motives by which Russian diplomacy rendered it impossible to protest against

the Austro-Hungarian concession for the Sandyak railroad. Pointing to the "disinterested attitude" of Russian diplomacy in the Balkans, he asserted that something serious must be undertaken for the amelioration of the condition of the Christians on the peninsula, particularly in Macedonia. Despite its sympathetic basis, he regarded the English proposal as at present not feasible, and justified Russian diplomacy in offering an independent solution, explaining its practicability. He also reported that the Russian scheme had met with favorable response not alone from France and Italy, but even from England, Austria-Hungary, and Germany, and that Russia had no special aims in the Balkan peninsula. Her policy is one of peace and solely for the betterment of the condition of the Balkan Christians.

In the discussion which followed the Minister's speech Paul Milyukov took the most prominent part. The latter is well informed in Balkan matters and the Macedonian question, and avails himself of the opportunity of presenting in its true light the *rôle* of the Russian representatives in the Balkan question. He reminded his hearers of the many auspicious moments thrown away when the Macedonian question might have been solved. He told how, offended at the ingratitude of the Bulgarians, Russia has for a decade dismissed all thought of the Balkans, leaving the Christians there to shift for themselves, thus opening a wide field for the play of the egoistical Austrian policies in the Balkans. Opposed to the Minister's view, Milyukov assigned an importance both strategical and political to the Sandyak railroad, and rejected the value of the other. He reproached Russian diplomacy with not foreseeing and forestalling this step of Austria's. Milyukov favors the widest autonomy for Macedonia, but regards the English proposal as not realizable. In conclusion, he called the Duma's attention to alarming rumors of a pan-Turkish movement in the provinces of Asiatic Turkey near to Transcaucasia. He also expressed the wish that the Minister might furnish some light on this Near East question. His speech was applauded not only by his own faction, but also by many on the Conservative benches.

WINSLOW HOMER'S RANK IN AMERICAN PAINTING.

RARELY in the history of the painter's art is found an instance of such quick and complete absorption of the elements of that art and ready conception of its essentials as is recorded of one of America's greatest of living painters, if not the greatest in his special field.

A short term in a night class at the National Academy of Design, two years of magazine illustrating, a month's lessons in a Boston studio, and lo! this genius was ready to take up his palette and brush and paint landscapes.

Leila Mechlin, in the current issue of the *International Studio,* tells the life story of Winslow Homer, of whom this lady says:

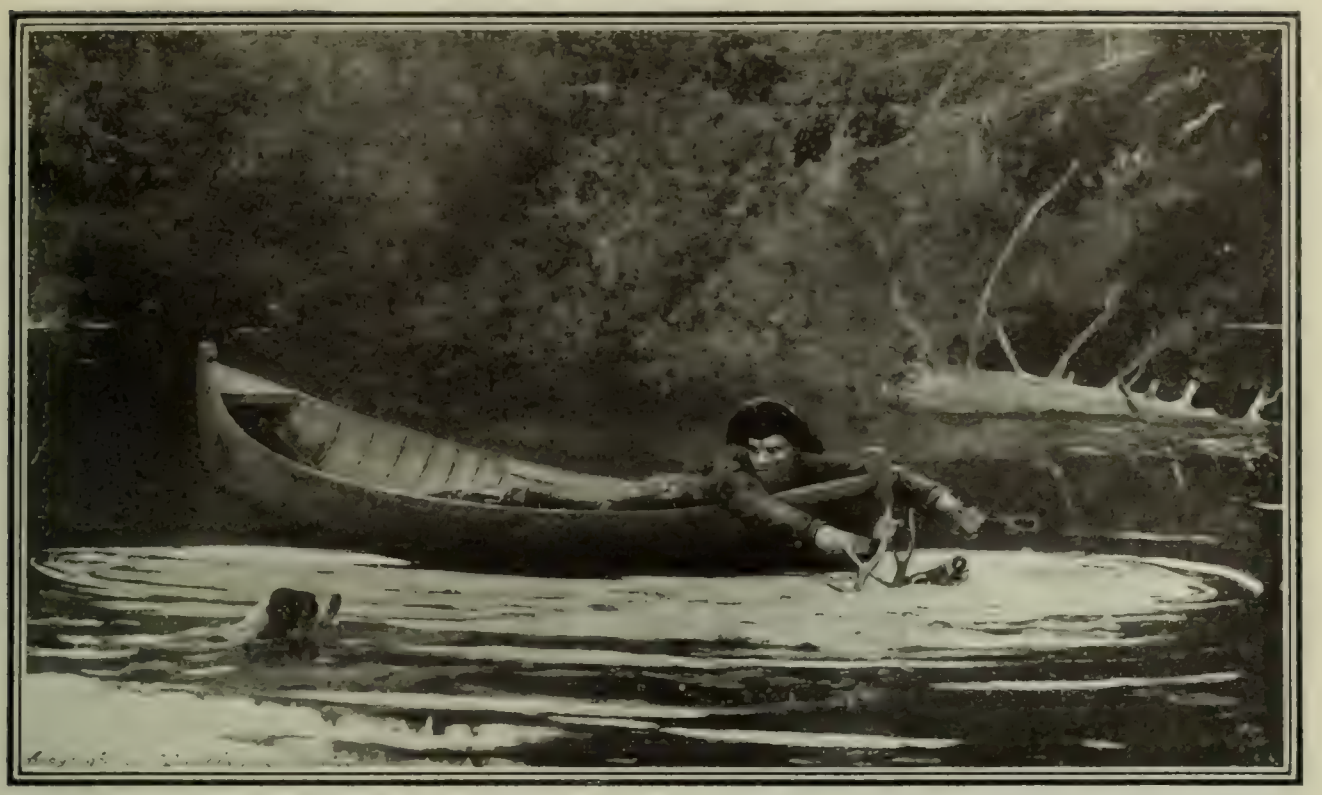
An art writer, eight years ago, ventured the opinion that if at that time the artists of the United States were called upon to declare who in their estimation was the greatest living distinctly American painter the majority would cast their votes for Winslow Homer, and with little doubt this would be equally true to-day.

Oddly enough, his reviewer, while giving Mr. Homer credit for his work, is unusually severe on what are deemed to be grave defects. After noting the fact that Mr. Homer's colleagues "not only recommended but urged" the purchase of his painting, "The Gulf Stream," by the Metropolitan Museum, this writer remarks:

And this in spite of the fact that in his method of rendering Mr. Homer outrages the strongest convictions of perhaps nine-tenths of the present-day painters. There is none who, from the technical standpoint, commonly paints more hatefully than he, and yet at the same time none who, as a rule, produces greater pictures. He has something to say, and he says it without circumlocution or affectation, but apparently the mode of delivery does not concern him beyond the point of sincerity and truth. Strength, vigor, force, and action appeal to him rather than mere beauty,—art to him is a means, not an end.

That the Homer paintings are unique the writer of the critique admits, but this quality does not suffice to set off certain alleged *outré* methods adopted to secure results:

His pictures are different from other men's pictures without necessarily being better or worse. To come across one in a current exhibition is a refreshment, such as turning from a printed page, no matter how interesting, to an open window, though they concern themselves little with the illusion of light and atmosphere. But the critic is obliged to discard his cherished vocabulary, for the set phrases which are commonly applicable cease to have significance, as completely as though the subject under consideration were a bit of the outdoor world, a piece of nature's painting. It would, in fact, be



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"HOUND AND HUNTER," A REPRESENTATIVE PAINTING BY WINSLOW HOMER.

almost as senseless to talk of the artistic manner in which the birds rendered their songs as to discover in Mr. Homer's method any aesthetic intention. The truth is, he has never learned to love painting,—he does it because it is necessary to expression.

The writer's allegation that Winslow Homer has never loved painting,—"has never learned to love it"—seems unthinkable to the lay reader, who has understood from the written traditions of the craft that in painting, as in music, enthusiasm,—another name for love in the sense in which it is used in the above,—is as essential to successful effort as the palette and the brush. It is a grave charge to make and one worthy of refutation. Another paragraph in the writer's review of Mr. Homer's life and work is a trifle more encouraging:

From the first Mr. Homer has been a law unto himself,—what other people thought or did does not seem to have influenced him in the least. He has witnessed the uprising of several schools, but he has never been tempted from the path he originally chose to adventure along those trodden out by others. Not that he is prejudiced or narrow-minded, but strong in his own convictions and sure of himself. His style has altered little from the first, but the character of his work has undergone several changes.

To summarize the reviewer's opinion as to the merits of Mr. Homer's work, as distinct from its alleged demerits, it is her decision that he "paints greater pictures than his confrères"; he has "strength, vigor, force and action" depicted on his canvases; he is "sincere and truthful" in his presentations; he "is strong in his own convictions and sure of himself." The above remarks are made with reference to Mr. Homer's efforts in oils. In the matter of water-colors, the reviewer is not so gentle in her criticisms, yet extends felicitations on special admirable traits that meet with her approval.

A group of Mr. Homer's paintings lent by public museums and private collectors has been made the feature of the Carnegie Institute's exhibition this year, and by the organizers of exhibitions in other cities than Pittsburg his works are eagerly sought and genuinely honored.

Since the first this painter has been what the world calls successful; his pictures have met with little adverse criticism, made many friends, and found ready sale. If, therefore, in these later days he does not care to affiliate with his fellow-workers, it is not because he has aught against them or complaint to make. Living simply through choice, he finds his chief pleasure in solitary sport, but is not entirely unmindful of what is passing in the world which he has deliberately shut out. Indifferent to sales, to praise and to blame alike, he still goes on his way with fixed purpose, manifesting at all times self-resourcefulness and independence. In the world of American art there is to-day no more unique figure than his, and to the field of American painting none has made nobler contribution than he.

Miss Mechlin's article is illustrated with many reproductions of paintings.

BAEDEKER OF THE GUIDE-BOOKS.



THE ORIGINAL BAEDEKER.

NUMEROUS travelers, who on their tours through Europe and elsewhere have come to regard Baedeker as "guide, philosopher, and friend," will thank Mr. Edwin Asa Dix for his interesting notes in the June *Travel* on the man himself.

It is now three-quarters of a century since a young bookseller of Coblenz, tramping along the Rhine in what the German calls his *Wanderjahr,* found himself often at a loss to know where to stop for the night. He had with him the handbooks of the historic river that had been published by the Englishman Murray and the German Klein; but he found that these, while eloquently describing the legends and the scenery, frequently failed to supply the information most needed by the tired and hungry wayfarer. It was this that gave to the young tourist, who was none other than Karl Baedeker, the germ of his idea for a new kind of book, says Mr. Dix.

He bought out Klein's copyright, and rewrote the book almost entirely. His methodical German mind evolved a precise and utilitarian system of treatment. He put the hotel first and the scenery afterward. He stated distances and times and prices. He blue-penciled many of the flowery descriptions. He sought to give facts rather than impressions. His aim was to make travel more an exact science and less a venture into the unknown. In 1839 his yellow-covered "Rhine Handbook" first appeared, and, as he expected, it filled a want and met an immediate welcome.

Making personal tours through each country, he next brought out similar books for Holland, Germany, Austria, and Upper Italy, the last volume evincing a great development of his original ideas, and being not widely different in form and arrangement from the Baedekers of to-day. Two years later his "Switzerland" was published, and this proved to be the most successful and popular of the entire series.

Baedeker wrote his books for the tourist of moderate means; and to this fact was largely due his initial success. For many years after the Napoleonic wars the English were the only persons rich enough to travel in any luxury; and the guide-books "presupposed more or less dependence on lackeys and couriers, more or less subjection to fluctuating charges."

Baedeker sought to make travel more independent; he was always pointing out ways of lessening cost. He was himself a sturdy and indefatigable pedestrian, and personally explored most of the routes described in his books.

Then, again, he was absolutely independent in judging hotels; and he persistently declined all advertisements.

For a long while innkeepers used to send him presents, or ask his terms for favorable notices; but the presents were sent back, and the terms were not quoted. They in time discerned the utter uselessness of these overtures, and found that merit alone was the passport to praise. To gain or lose a "star" in Baedeker may make or mar a landlord's fortune.

It was some time before the English took kindly to Karl Baedeker's system.

They were accustomed to fine writing and to vaulting descriptions. They complained that he had no soul,—only a stomach, a time-table, and a thin pocketbook. But they have long since surrendered at discretion to the value of his unfailing exactitude; and *Fliegende Blätter* has a picture of an English *paterfamilias* finding the picturesque castle on the right and the foaming waterfall on the left, instead of *vice versa* as asserted by his infallible Baedeker, and exclaiming to his flock, "Why, this scenery is all wrong!"

At the time of his death (1859) Baedeker had published nine guide-books. Now, under his sons Karl and Fritz and his grandson

Hans, the firm has a list of twenty-six such books in German alone. Then there are the editions in French and English. The Baedeker system and supervision never relaxes. The members of the firm and their representatives travel incognito.

A hotel-keeper in The Hague once told of a tall, bearded German of quiet manners, who spent several days at his hotel while exploring the city, and who, on leaving, said: "I am pleased to be able to recommend your hotel; my name is Baedeker."

The renunciation of advertisements makes the books slow money-makers: it usually takes ten years to repay the first cost of any new volume. A helpful source of information to the publishers is the number of voluntary letters they receive from travelers themselves.

THE PERSIAN REVOLUTION AND THE ANGLO-RUSSIAN AGREEMENT.

UNTIL recently Iran occupied but an unimportant place in European political preoccupations: its very remoteness kept it aloof equally from Western and Eastern meddling. Save for the incessant rivalry of Russia and England, the country was given over to the researches of Orientalists and archeologists. The recent penetration of Germany into interior Asia has, however, brought a new influence into contact with Iran; and the Persian revolution and the Anglo-Russian agreement have definitively introduced Persian affairs into the domain of general politics.

Great Britain and Russia have long had a liking for Asiatic arrangements, writes an anonymous writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The first Anglo-Russian agreement on the subject of Persia dates from 1834. It had reference to the succession to the throne, and thereby the two nations mutually bound themselves to respect the independence of the country. Similar agreements were from time to time entered into, as occasions arose. When in the early months of 1906 the financial embarrassment of Persia and the approaching death of Muzaffer-ed-Din led to another *rapprochement* between Russia and England, the situation called for an agreement more precise and more complete than its predecessors. Strong in her advantages, England desired to relieve her diplomacy from the care of Persian affairs; Russia was not averse to consolidating a state of things supportable at any rate for the present, and susceptible to development in the future.

The bases of the treaty entered into by the two great powers August 31, 1907, are the maintenance of the integrity and independence of Persia, and the principle of the "open door." In the delimitation of zones of influence England was content with a very modest portion,—the two lesser provinces of Seistan and Mekran. These, however, have real strategic value, since they guarantee



MOHAMMED ALI MIRZA, SHAH OF PERSIA.

the defense of India and access to the Gulf of Oman. The zone assigned to Russia with Ispahan and Yezd leaves to her future action the finest provinces of the kingdom. It also includes Kasr-i-Chirine, to which will run a branch of the Bagdad railway. Finally, the treaty powers have provided for the eventual establishment of a financial control, "in order to preclude all interference which may not conform to the principles on which the present agreement is based."

The agreement has been variously criticised by the European press. France "is jubilant because anything that removes friction between England and Russia also removes another prop from under Germany." The German press is in doubt as to which has the best of the negotiations, but is generally agreed that England has riveted her hold on the Persian Gulf.

As to the effects of the treaty on the Persians themselves, the writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* thinks that the revolution, followed by the Anglo-Russian agreement, "seems to offer an excellent chance to the peoples of Iran." If she will only act prudently, Persia should have as good fortune as came to Siam when that country was divided into zones of influence under the Anglo-French agreement.

The indifference of the inhabitants, the fragility of materials, give to all Oriental countries the same ruinous aspect. In no part is this impression more vivid than in the Persian plateau. The houses are falling down, the streets are full of gaping holes, and the facings of the tombs and mosques are crumbling away. The Iranian people seem to have sunk to the lowest depth of degradation and misery. Still, under this debris persist the traces of a glorious culture, a refined intelligence, an ardent patriotism, and,—strange to say, a thing unique in a Mussulman country,—a compact and conscientious nationality: fecund germ of future efflorescence.

So far from the Persians having been discomposed by the English initiative, the French writer holds that they have been strengthened thereby.

All their latent energies have been awakened; the liberal movement tends to change the character, it leads the Shah and his people to manifest the same patriotic sentiment, and to unite in a common effort for the national upraising, the success of which will effectively insure the independence of Persia.

THE WOMEN OF BURMAH.

THE idea that the women of one of those fabulously picturesque regions that skirt "the road to Mandalay" might be the freest and happiest on all the earth appears hopelessly paradoxical at first sight. And yet this is the very assertion which Mrs. Jane Gernandt-Claine, a prominent and far-traveled Swedish writer, makes in the columns of *Dagny* (Stockholm) in regard to her sisters of far-off Burmah. She has studied them on the spot and has come to the conclusion not only that they furnish one of the few bright features of that portion of the globe, but that their state and achievements hold out encouragement as well as guidance to the women in all other parts of the world. Speaking of what she observed in "the Fair Land East of India," as the Burmese themselves call their country, Mrs. Gernandt says:

Among the many reasons why it holds such a unique place must be counted the sparseness of the population and the prohibition against the selling of the soil itself, by which the thoughtless men of Burmah are prevented from disposing of their rich fields, but also, and above all, that the daughters of that country possess an unequaled talent for business, so that the entire intricate bazaar system is life to them, whether it be a question of dealing in precious stones representing millions of dollars or merely of measuring out those pieces of silk which the Burmese women wind about their slender lily-white figures. It may almost be said of the young girls that they are born and bred in the booths, and everything they know or are capable of they have learned from *amé*,—i. e., mamma,—or from her colleagues and woman friends. Of her father such a girl sees very little, for this generally amiable but as frequently indolent gentleman prefers,—once he has visited his fields and inspected the rice harvest early in the morning,—to sleep away his day rather than to mix in the tumult on the city streets of Rangoon. And the younger members of the family are none the worse off on this account.

The women have the more freedom for business and for gossip, of which they are equally fond, because the smaller children wear no other dress than a piece of string around the waist, and get along splendidly without most of the supervision and assistance bestowed on the children of the Occident. What Mrs. Gernandt found more remarkable in the Burmese women than even their freedom and their ability was their complete lack of that hostile jealousy which is supposed to be inseparable from all competitive business.

Whether a sale comes to herself or to the

owner of the adjoining booth, the Burmese woman displays the same proud freedom from lust of gain, while at the same time she remains equally polite and yet independent in her demeanor. All their doings and dealings are free from any meanness. Nor are those women satisfied to work and rule only in the bazaar. Since long time they have enjoyed communal suffrage, and political suffrage would undoubtedly also be theirs if it were to be found at all in the country. They are deeply interested in all public affairs, and whenever a Burmese husband gets into some kind of trouble with the authorities, his wife will be sure to appear in his place to settle the matter.

Mrs. Gernandt found that the women in "the Fair Land East of India" shared with the men all existing educational facilities. Thus, for instance, they have, for more than eighty years, had access to the University of Rangoon. Among the Buddhist nuns at that place Mrs. Gernandt found many who had passed with highest possible honors the examinations in Sanscrit and Pali prescribed for the higher clergy. And from their ranks had come many inspired poetesses of whose gifts Mrs. Gernandt heard several high Catholic prelates speak with the deepest admiration.

I became personally acquainted, she says, with a very wealthy woman, a dealer in rubies, whose business did not prevent her from possessing a far deeper knowledge of Sanscrit and Pali than I have of my own mother tongue. She was in the habit of impressing the fact on my attention, that Buddha never had made any distinction between the sexes. And in order to become worthy of higher forms of reincarnation or even,—and why not?—of *Nirvana*, she built pagodas and established educational schools for boys and girls, where even the poor little Chinese maids might gather a little knowledge.

The young women were seen to meet the men of their own age in comradelike freedom and equality. Often the young people were seen traveling around in couples in the clumsy flower-decked and ox-drawn vehicles of the land. And if a young girl should fall in love contrary to the wishes of her mother, an elopement to the jungle would invariably ensue, ending, with the same invariability, with a surrender on the part of the mother. The whole affair is very simple, continues the Swedish writer; just a wedding feast for relatives and friends.

And if some time in the future the young matron should grow tired of supporting both husband and children, she will simply apply to the elders of the city for a divorce. They will then try at first to arrange a reconciliation. All jesting aside, the marriages are as a rule very happy. Nor do they, socially, imply any great change in the lives of the Burmese women. Before, as after, the wedding, they are called *Mah*, a title common to young girls and married women. The name of the husband is his own affair and does not concern his wife at all. She retains her own name as well as any property she may either have inherited or acquired. If she obtains a divorce, it is she who has to care for the children, but as she had to do so anyhow, it makes no great difference in her life. And if she has daughters, they are sure to open booths of their own at an early age.

THE "EUROPEANIZATION" OF RUSSIA.

UNDER this heading Mr. D. Protopopov, in a recent issue of the *Russkaya Mysl* (*Russian Thought*), endeavors to show that since the revolutionary movement of 1905 conditions in Russia have changed so quickly that thought is scarcely able to follow them. "Before that period," says this writer, "events in Russia moved so slowly that it is hard to get accustomed to the new *tempo*. This writer believes that a greater freedom has come to Russia, but not in the way the revolutionists imagined.

Reality has mercilessly trodden upon the flowers of their hopes. Therefore the new conditions are of a conflicting nature. Some think that Russia has been thrown backward almost to the time of Alexander III., and that everything has to be begun anew. The administration has raised its voice, has let some blood, and now everything is quiet. The people are in a gloomy mood: they curse themselves and others under exaggerated rumors of their own invention. Others still cherish a belief in an approaching revolution, like that of October, or similar to the French Revolution. The reason for this is that not a single demand of the country has been complied with by the government. The lower classes are crushed, the reactionaries behave licentiously; how is it possible, then, that there should not be a new outbreak?

A new kind of mob has appeared in the cities, which is just as ready to side with the "expropriators" as with the gendarmerie. There is a complete mix-up of revolutionary and criminal tendencies.

All that is liberal or progressive has in many places capitulated without any fight. The wealthy classes are given over to material enjoyment; and much more is spent in dress, shows, and feasting than heretofore. A merciless indifference to the sufferings of their poorer neighbors is noticeable among this section of society. An indecent literature, devoid of talent and of sense, is ruining the lives of their spoiled children. The wealthier and mightier classes have organized for the protection of their own interests. Frightened by all that has been

talked and written about a dictatorship of the proletariat, they are now ready to support any strong regime, they certainly prefer a Durnovo or a Stolypin to a Khrustalov. Of the former sympathy of these classes with the radical elements there is not even a trace.

In the last three years the peasants have undergone a complete transformation.

Their former tardiness and their patriarchal obedience to the will of the officials have disappeared. Disobedience combined with disrespect to the uniform of the military is now often noticed. The peasants seem more clearly to understand their own interests, and they demand respect to their own personality. The landlords frequently complain of the growing difficulty in farming their estates owing to the unreasonable demands of the laboring men, their disobedience, threats, and strikes. The habits of the cities are spreading through the villages. There is no harmony in the peasant families. The village youth no longer recognize the authority of their elders. Quarrels, fights, incendiarism, burglaries,—a complete disruption of the old patriarchal foundations is to be witnessed.

From among all these ugly unsympathetic forms, continues the Russian reviewer, a new world is undoubtedly evolving.

A great transformation is taking place,—a metamorphosis of both the communal system and the individual. In this collision of the new world with the old one, how can the forms be other than of the roughest kind? The old moral code, which has hitherto guided the majority of the Russian people,—the peasants,—is breaking down. A great thirst for knowledge and education is noticeable among the peasant class. They are taking more interest in the affairs of the Zemstvo and in improved methods of agriculture. Among the city laborers organizations are becoming more numerous, and a longing for enlightenment is to be observed. Lectures and evening classes are eagerly attended by the workingmen. Watchmen, cabmen, and common laborers read their newspapers, and use more intelligent language than formerly. A desire for the elevation of the individual is noticeable everywhere. Servants may not any longer be treated as mere living chattels; they begin to look upon themselves as component members of society. Even in the police department the view of the service has changed. Whereas formerly the members of the force served their superiors blindly and devotedly, now they regard their positions as means for earning a livelihood. A new type of people has been born. The masses are awakened: there is no human power that can compel them to sleep again. In the third Duma we hear no more enthusiastic speeches: there are no more passionate outbursts. There is no doubt, however, that the Parliament will become more and more a factor of political importance. It is just as much needed for the government, which can shield itself under the Duma's authority on questions of loans, in the struggle with the borderlands and in other matters. In place of the patriarchal conditions, a certain patriotic feeling is awaking.

All this, says Mr. Protopopov, may be called the approaching Europeanization of Russia. We see the advent of a real democratic life, with its positive and negative sides. With this Europeanization a long, hard and merciless struggle of the classes and the masses against their oppressors may be expected.

KARL MARX AS A WORLD FORCE.

WHAT is it that caused Karl Marx, the founder of the modern Socialist movement, to become a tremendous international influence? Why has the Marxian system laid such a grip upon millions throughout the world, meeting a reception without parallel in the history of ideas, and comparing in its universal appeal only with the great religions? These are the questions propounded in the *Morgen,* a leading German weekly, by Werner Sombart, professor in the commercial high-school of Berlin, and a sociologist of international reputation.

The resemblance of Socialism to the great religions, Sombart thinks, consists not only in the attraction it exerts upon large numbers of people, but also in the manner and the religious fervor with which the adherents of Marx feel and believe and live in his teachings.

This is the more remarkable, as at first view it would seem that the writings of Marx contain absolutely none of those elements which in religion have fired the imagination of mankind. They are poor in social ideas, in political thought, and in warm, impassioned appeals. They offer no paradise, no wonderful land, flowing with milk and honey, in which all men shall be princes, enjoying much pleasure and little toil. They hold up no such utopias as those of Fourier and Weitling. Marx's words descend bold and heavy as hammer-blows: "The workingmen have nothing to lose but their chains; they have a world to gain!"

This, Sombart comments, is an empty world, something quite abstract, with no appeal to the senses. Even though Marx speaks with the voice of the old Jewish prophets, he has only their stern inflexibility; he lacks the sublimity of their emotion, their deep pathos.

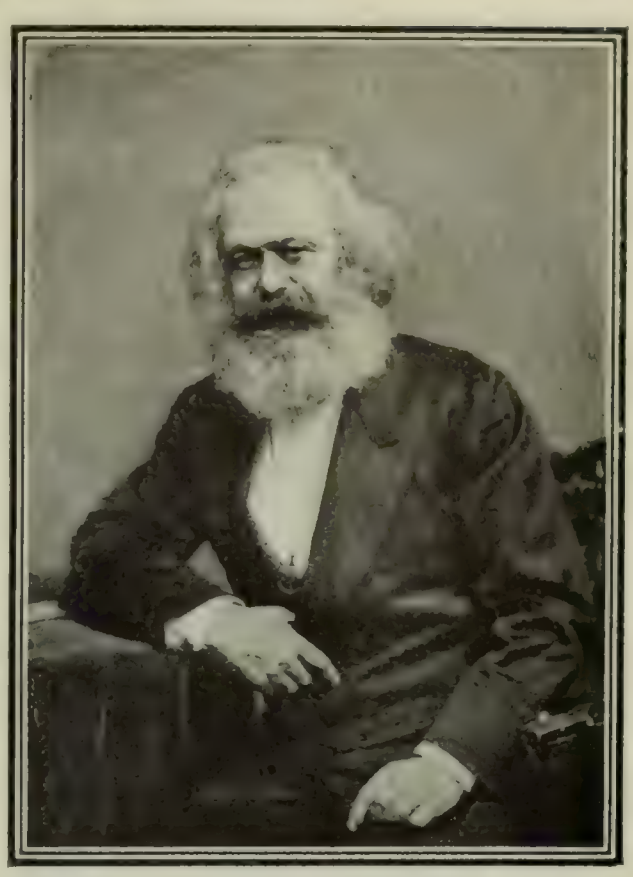
He scarcely ever stirs the great human passions, he never calls upon the people to die for

their ideals. In fact he often assumes a tone of mockery in regard to ideals. The working class has no ideals, he says; it has in it merely the elements for bringing forth into freedom a new society, which has already developed in the bosom of the bourgeois society now on the verge of collapse.

In view of all these repellent features in the Marxian system, how can its victorious march be explained?

" One of the reasons," says Sombart, " why Marxism has become the recognized confession of faith of the Socialist proletariat is its very emptiness, its poverty in social ideas, its lack of positive demands.

One will understand why the Marxian doctrine has become the rock upon which the church of the social movement could be built if one realizes that such is its breadth that it can comprehend the most widely divergent tendencies. Because Marx did not set up a fixed program, because he drew no definite picture of the future to be aimed for, because he allowed a wide latitude to individual preferences as regards even the details of carrying out the class struggle,—because of all this he could become the theoretician *par excellence* of the Social movement. Hence it is also that he united all ideals into one purely formal ideal of class solidarity: 'Workingmen of all countries, unite!'"



KARL MARX, THE "FATHER OF SOCIALISM."

To this general negative quality of Marx was added the positive kernel in his teachings, " the minimum program," as Sombart calls it, in which every Socialist proletarian to-day *must* believe. This program is:

The end of the Socialist movement is socialization of all the means of production and distribution, and the class struggle is the way to bring about this end. These two doctrines became the two mainstays of Socialism; for when the end and the means were thus indicated the ideal of solidarity followed as a natural corollary, and in turn gave rise to the idea of internationalism. And from internationalism to universal brotherhood is but a step; so that in this way Socialism was able to revive an old powerful idea and enlist it in its own service.

Marx, according to Sombart, has also drawn a great deal of strength from the fact that he has so frequently been misunderstood by those who preach his doctrines to the masses.

It has always been so with religions. Both the trained and the untrained minds are able to draw spiritual nourishment from them, although the uneducated classes frequently misinterpreted the spirit of their Masters' teachings. While Marx is generally understood, he has been aided greatly by these very misinterpreters, in that they infused a moral spirit into his teachings which Marx himself did not put into them. In his famous theory of value and surplus value Marx declares that the workingman receives only part of what he earns by his labor, while the rest, the surplus value, which keeps continually increasing in proportion to what the workingman receives, goes to the employer in the form of profit.

This theory, Sombart declares, was invested by Marx with no moral significance. He merely pointed out what he considered an economic fact for the purpose of proving that the capitalist system must perforce come to an end and give way to an orderly Socialist régime. In Marx's system there is " no grain of ethics." He was particularly proud of the fact that he never made any appeal to " eternal justice." In all his works he bends all his energies to prove by cold scientific reasoning that the coming of Socialism is inevitable.

The Socialist propagandists, however, make use of this theory of value to arouse moral resentment in the working class. The workingmen are deprived by the capitalist system of what is their just due, and in fighting for the overthrow of capitalism they are fighting for justice,—another powerful, world-moving element, which imparts to Marx's doctrine the moral strength inherent in all great religions.

The final attractive quality in Marx was the revolutionary character of his teachings. " It is in fact not difficult," says Sombart, " to extract from the writings of Marx, espe-

cially the younger Marx, sufficient inflammatory material to feed the fire of revolutionary enthusiasm."

At the present time, Sombart declares, not one of the theories of Marx is able to stand the test of economic and sociologic criticism. The Socialists nowadays, however, continue to worship Marx with greater fervor than ever as the bearer of the only true gospel of salvation. This gospel has merely assumed a new form. Marxism need not be scientifically true in every detail, but it nevertheless remains the evangel of the social revolution, of the hereafter, of the millennium.

THE WORK OF FRANÇOIS COPPÉE.



THE LATE FRANÇOIS COPPÉE.

TO excite the fond interest of the common people and to win the love of the lower classes by writing exquisite heart poetry is indeed a rare thing. François Coppée, the French author who died last month, wrote so well that he satisfied the critical taste of Gautier and Bauville, yet the plain people loved his works. The enigma, says Paul Bourget, writing in the *Annales,* is explained by the very high intellectual value of his poetry.

Of all the contemporary poets, he was the only one who was wholly and immutably French. He was wholly French by the visions evoked in his revery by the natural play of memory,—visions of the plain life of the home-lover, the life of the people. Many poets who came before him and who followed him forced themselves to be up to date, assimilated themselves to their surroundings. Coppée's work shows the reader that the writer did not take up his pen to copy from the things and the life around him; that he sketched not from the nature of others or of his surroundings, but from the sympathy and the deep feeling of his own nature. The city was his city; therefore he sketched it. His work was the gentle work of love.

How fortunate, continues M. Bourget, it is for the world of letters that, instead of lingering over his books, "he loitered in the streets, in the old public squares, and on the banks of the green Seine, where it runs between the high gray quais, carrying its slow barges!" The memories in his mind stole into his poems, and we see his pictures as we see the Scotch glens in the poems of Burns, and the landscape of the East in the stories told by Byron. The pictures appear and the reader recognizes the scenes, and smiles at the faithfulness of the painting.

Paris was a country in itself, Coppée's country, and he loved it.

French by birth, he was more profoundly French, more closely and intimately French, by the quality of his art. His work was natural, just, precise, perfectly finished. Finish and justice are the distinguishing characteristics of many of the artists of our race,—they are, perhaps, the most natural and most genuine traits of many. Our artists do not care so much for invention. What they aim at is to push execution to the point of perfection, or at least to the point of excellence.

No Frenchman since the days of Musset, asserts M. Bourget, has revealed the heart-appeal so strikingly as Coppée; nor has any poet better represented the "mental current" of the true Frenchman, the Frenchman of Gallo-Roman stock. Because, moreover, Coppée was a very delicate and refined thinker and an artist of extreme assurance of reach, because he was a true exponent of French sensibility, he holds a unique place in French contemporary literature. He will probably have no successor, because the kind of life he lived and pictured is slowly but surely passing away from France.

CAN LAND AND UNEMPLOYED LABOR BE BROUGHT TOGETHER?

"IS there land for the unemployed?" is a question discussed by Mr. W. B. Kellogg, of Superior, Wis., in *Charities and the Commons* for June 6. In the Northwest, he says, there are "thousands of acres of fertile land lying out in the sun and rain waiting to produce abundant crops when labor shall be applied for clearing and cultivation." He cannot help thinking

> that some of this land ought to be used while it is cheap,—first to employ idle labor, and, second, to be sold in small tracts to those so employed who might desire land and a home of their own. Our remaining land-supply should not be wholly monopolized by "him that hath." The fellow who is down should be given a chance also.

It is often asked why unemployed men do not seek work or land on the farms; but to most of such men an insurmountable obstacle presents itself,—namely, the lack of funds for the necessary transportation or for the required deposit in the case of those who would like to buy land. Further, except in harvest-time, hired help can be supplied by the locality, and during the remainder of the year the demand for it is very irregular.

> A man dependent upon wages must have regular employment, and he naturally seeks labor centers where there is a greater or less demand all the year round. Unless he sees a definite job ahead of him, he will not be apt to forsake the known for the unknown.

The farmers on their part make no systematic attempt to make known their wants, and it is not to be expected that men in congested centers will seek work several hundred miles distant unless they are pretty certain that work is awaiting them when they get there. It is, therefore, not surprising that the wages alone do not tempt the laboring classes to seek the farms in large numbers.

What is wanted most is a scheme for bringing land and labor together. But the scheme must be one which shall have a business basis independently of any philanthropic motive at the back of it. The beneficiaries must be treated

> not as objects of charity, but strictly on business principles, except as they might be given an unusual opportunity to make a start. Self-help would have to be the keynote so far as the laborer is concerned; and a reasonable return for the investment would be necessary to give permanence to the undertaking. . . .

Speaking generally, land is out of the reach of those who need it most; for

> there must be a cash payment of some portion of the purchase price, the family must be moved, a house put up, necessary stock and tools bought, and the settler must have some reserve wherewith to maintain himself until the first returns.

Confining his remarks to the district with which he is most familiar, Mr. Kellogg says that the most favorable locality for the man of small means to secure a foothold is the "cut-over" region of northern Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota.

> There he finds building material, fencing, and fuel at hand for the taking; abundant natural pasture for his stock, nearby markets for all his produce, work for himself and his team during the winter (when the prairie farmer is idle), and game and wild fruits to add to the food-supply.

The amount of money needed to make a beginning naturally depends upon certain conditions, such as the terms of sale, the location, the quantity of marketable timber on the land, etc. As a general proposition, however, it may be said that an energetic man with $300 or $400 can move into and establish himself in this section of the country.

The first essential in any scheme for bringing land and labor together profitably is productive land which shall be cheap in an unimproved state and valuable after labor has been applied to it. Plenty of such land, well situated as regards markets and railroads, is to be had, Mr. Kellogg says, in Wisconsin, at from $10 to $12.50 per acre.

> It is now covered with some living timber and with the stumps of a former forest: the expense of clearing varies from $15 to $30 an acre. This land, when brought under cultivation, has been found to produce even higher net returns from a given acreage than land in the older settled parts of the country, where land is valued at $125 to $150 per acre.

Mr. Kellogg cites the case of a settler who increased the value of his land, which had cost him $27.50 to buy and clear, to $75 an acre.

The profitable clearing of land being successfully demonstrated, he suggests that it would be feasible to help settlers over the crucial difficulty of making a start by employing them to do the clearing, and then giving them an opportunity of buying the land at a price covering the original cost, the expense put upon it, and a reasonable profit to the investor. This plan would provide work at the outset,—an absolute necessity for the man

without means,—it would enable him to become familiar with the work of a settler, and he could make a beginning on far less than if he came into the country an entire stranger. Then there is the incentive to hard work which landownership always gives.

In the "cut-over" region, referred to above, practically all the improvement of land has been done by comparatively poor men. Hundreds of settlers who are now comfortably circumstanced started in this way. A noteworthy instance, typical of the class, is given by Mr. Kellogg:

A colored man had just enough money to make a payment on his land, put up a log house, and secure a team. He began his clearing at once, and supported his family for a time on the proceeds of cordwood hauled to the city. It was hard work, and he was handicapped by the long haul; but he kept at it, and by the intelligent use of his land he has become known as one of the most successful farmers of the county. Strawberry culture is one of his specialties, and a field of an acre and a quarter, all propagated from twelve plants originally given to him, pays him annually something over $600. . . . He is now independent.

There being plenty of cheap good land now lying waste, and plenty of unemployed labor which might profitably be applied to it, can not some plan be devised for bringing them together?

"RED" SUNDAY-SCHOOLS AND CHILD SOCIALISTS.

IT will be news to many persons to learn that Sunday-schools for teaching Socialism to children "are well established and flourishing in all of our large cities." What is taught therein may be gathered from six essays, written by boys and girls of eleven to thirteen years of age without prompting. Extracts from these essays are given by Martha Moore Avery in the May number of the *National Civic Federation Review*. One of the youthful authors, having evidently been taught that the cause of killing and stealing is simply lack of wealth, says heaven shall come on earth

when Socialism comes; there will be plenty of food for all, and people will not have to run after food or kill or rob some other man in order to get it.

A girl of thirteen treats the dogma of the "social organism," and in the course of her essay writes:

A society of men, like the human body, is made up of different parts. Each must do its work. A good example we have in the street-cleaners of New York. Last week the street-cleaners, instead of taking away the garbage, every day, went on strike, and the garbage was piled on the streets for five or six days. It smelled very bad. It is believed that many children were taken sick from the terrible smell. The strikers did not win, but it is said they will get what they want.

A little fellow of eleven deals with the problem of the moral order:

"It can not be different, because people can not be kind, true, or honest so long as they work for wages."

These scholars are taught "how the human body happened to be formed as it is." It was "our habits while we were still only animals that made us over into men." Every structure is made by habits forced upon it.

The rabbit has long ears and his eyes are at the side of his head because the rabbit has to see what is going on around him. The wolf is fierce and his eyes are in front of his head because he is always chasing the rabbit and trying to get him for food. It is the same way with the people,—they are always running after food. . . . If they don't get it, they are compelled to rob or kill some one to get food for their wives and children.

A boy of thirteen, who has a clear grasp on the doctrine, mission, and destiny of "class struggle," says the "game of life" has been to "hold as their own social use property, and to keep the stakes of the game through politics." When Socialists come into power they will "make rules for their own benefit. The working class being in the great majority, the rules they would make would really be for the benefit of all!"

The remaining two of the juvenile essayists tell "What Socialists Want."

Socialists claim that a system like Americanism has no right to exist. It must be changed to a new system of society, where people will not be divided with different interests, but it will be one class, with one interest, and that will be the good and welfare of society.

These essays were the productions of pupils in New York Socialist Sunday-schools; and the admiration for this literary achievement "spread from ocean to ocean." The Socialist children of Omaha were not to be outdone by those of New York, and they gave a practical demonstration of their principles, when, led by a little girl of ten, they "tore down President Roosevelt's picture

from the walls, and hung in its place one of 'Mother' Jones." The Socialist press gave glowing accounts of this exhibition of youthful "heroism," and the *Social-Democratic Herald* of Milwaukee said it spoke "volumes for the manner in which these children have been taught the truths of Socialism."

The "red" catechisms have left the principles of logic behind, and Bible-teaching and Christian standards are out of date. The Ten Commandments have been curtailed; for at Boston some of the "comrades" have "Resolved, That henceforth when a man is hungry it is moral to steal."

In America the spirit of Socialism is intellectual and practical; in Australia (Melbourne) "it is somewhat sentimental, devotional." In the latter country not only are the children taught the doctrine, but even infants are dedicated to the cause at baptism.

Children's Socialistic literature is multiplying. To the series beginning with "The Young Socialist" has been added "The Child's Socialist Reader," with illustrations by the artist, Walter Crane.

In London those Socialist Sunday-schools that teach from the "red catechism" have been refused the further use of the public schoolrooms.

There are no statistics available for America, but the Sunday-school children of the "red internationals" abroad number more than 59,000.

IS MANUAL TRAINING IN SCHOOLS WORTH WHILE?

ACCORDING to Mr. George Frederic Stratton, in *Cassier's Magazine* for June, the father, the taxpayer, and the employer of labor are asking, "What is it all for,—this 'manual training,' with its expensive equipment, its special teachers, and its demands upon the boy's time?"; and the question is growing insistent. The school authorities do not regard manual training as a preparation for an industrial career. As a school superintendent remarked at a recent meeting of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, "We are not teaching a trade; we are training the faculties of the children,—training the observation, the imagination, the will, etc." This view of the teachers is a subject of comment in a report of the Massachusetts Commission on Industrial and Technical Education:

> The wide indifference to manual training as a school subject may be due to the narrow view which has prevailed among its chief advocates. It has been urged as a stimulus to other forms of intellectual effort,—a sort of mustard relish, an appetizer, to be conducted without any industrial end. It has been severed from real life as completely as have the other school activities. Thus it has come about that the overmastering influences of school traditions have brought into subordination both the drawing and the manual work.

This criticism of drawing, it may be said in passing, is only too well founded. It is an absolute necessity for the workman of today to be able to understand the detailed drawings of the work on which he may be engaged,—be it a locomotive, a railroad trestle, or a factory building. The only way in which he can acquire such understanding is through a course of strictly mechanical drawing; yet in a large majority of the schools in which manual training is taught the pupils are allowed to devote time which ought properly to be given to mechanical drawing to freehand, ornamental work.

It is undoubtedly the fact that "a great many instructors regard manual training in itself as a golden opportunity for the dissemination of a larger understanding and appreciation of art." This probably explains the rule, in force in most schools where manual training has been introduced into the eighth and ninth grades, which requires every pupil to give some time to the subject, even though he may be intended for a clergyman, a physician, or a lawyer.

Light is thrown on the status of manual training in the high-schools by a report of Prof. F. W. Ballou, of the University of Cincinnati. He found that of 207 high-schools, 159 permitted students to elect the course, while forty-eight made it compulsory. Further, that forty-eight gave two hours a week to such work; 106 one and one-half hours; sixty-eight one hour; and some as little as twenty-five minutes (!).

There is at the present time an increasing demand for bright, well-trained young mechanics, which cannot be supplied.

> The railroad manager needs more trackage, more rolling stock, and larger yard facilities, and cannot secure them. . . . The men to

build the locomotives and cars and to meet the rapidly increasing demands of all manufacturers are still in embryo. One of the largest contractors in New England, in a recent speech, said: "It is, in my opinion, useless to look for any relief from the manual-training systems in the public schools as at present conducted.

In so little estimation is the public-school manual-training course held by manufacturers that the manager of a large plant, where there are more than 200 apprentices, being asked if any time was credited to high-school pupils on his apprentice course, replied emphatically:

Not a day! How much could we allow them, in justice to the others? The total time they put in on a two years' course in the school is not over 160 hours,—just about equal to three weeks of our time; and it is doubtful to me if they have learned as much in that long drawn-out stretch of tuition as they would learn in three straight weeks in our shops.

In many of the cities the problem has been taken up by the boards of trade, and the business men have been called upon to make suggestions; but "so far, all is chaos." It is, moreover, proved by statistics that the high-schools do not furnish material for mechanics to a degree that makes manual training there worth while. It was found that of 2500 graduates who had been obliged to take manual training, only 6 per cent. had taken up mechanical work.

The proposal has been made that appropriations should be made for post-graduate courses in manual training for grammar-school graduates. To this there is a serious obstacle.

Such thorough training cannot be given without the continual use of material; and unless a market can be found for the products, which is very doubtful, the expense of such material, added to the expense of furnishing tools and equipment and competent instructors, would be greater than municipalities would care to incur. It would undoubtedly arouse the antagonism of the taxpayers.

There are, however, two existing methods of industrial and technical education which have such excellent records of success that they seem to indicate a solution of the questions, "Who to train?" and "How to train?" These are the courses of the Young Men's Christian Association and the correspondence-school systems.

A study of the personnel of the young men who comprise the Young Men's Christian Association and the correspondence-school classes shows that they are, almost without exception, young workers already in their several trades. They have gone direct from the grammar schools, and sometimes from the high-schools, into industrial occupations, and the desire to become better men has drawn them into the classes mentioned. Here, then, is the true material, and the finest of material. Young, bright, enthusiastic men. . . . devoting two or three evenings each week to real endeavor at self-improvement. Such boys and men are worth while.

The superintendent of a great machine shop says:

The best men I have are the few who have taken those evening or correspondence courses while working in here daily. . . . They have character, too! A man indifferent to his future and to his work won't study nights. These night-students make good men and true,—every time!

ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL GERMANY IN 1908.

AS America watches the pulse of Wall Street, so Germany reads its financial and economic welfare in the condition of the Reichsbank, the Bank of the Empire, that governs the money market of the country. More truly speaking, the Reichsbank, together with the Kreditbanken, performs the same function as do the great New York banks and their clearing-house in combination with the Stock Exchange in America.

From 1905 to 1908 the Reichbank's rates of interest fluctuated from 3.14 per cent. to 6 per cent. German paper money depreciated in value, and foreign financiers lost confidence in the standard of German gold, fearing that payment might be suspended.

The recent financial stringency, however, was small compared with the crash of 1873, which was brought about by overspeculation after the Franco-Prussian War. This, says the French economist, M. Raphael Georges-Levy, writing in the *Revue des Deux Mondes,* shows the general improvement that has taken place in financial and economic Germany since that time. During the twenty-seven years following the former crash, agricultural interests, in league with large manufacturing enterprises, forced Bismarck into a protectorate policy, that greatly restricted business transactions. It was only recently that this evil has been corrected, thus restoring the power and liberty of the stock market.

As the industries have grown, the banks have had to increase their proportions to accommodate the rapid growth of capital. The Reichsbank, together with the banks of Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Saxony, and Baden, has the right to issue banknotes, but the combined circulation of the four banks barely equals one-tenth that of the Bank of the Empire, that will in the course of time have the monopoly of issue.

The system of the Reichsbank is simple: The bank is authorized to issue notes to three times the amount of specie on hand, provided that the difference between these sums be covered by a portfolio of bills of commerce. When the circulation exceeds the sum total of the gold plus a sum fixed by law,—about $119,000,000,—a tax of 5 per cent. is levied on the excess. This prevents the unnecessary issue of paper money.

Next in importance to the Reichsbank come the Kreditbanken, that derive their name from the fact that a collection of enterprises gravitate about each one, supported and promulgated by its credit.

The capital and reserve funds of these banks exceed the deposits by 50 per cent. About one-sixth of the capital is invested in shares, and five-sixths is in cash on hand. A most important relationship exists between these Kreditbanken and industrial companies, and this combination of financial and industrial enterprises has made Germany the home of manufactures, that controls especially the production of coal, iron, and steel.

The remarkable combination as above described enabled the industries of the countries to prosper and produce during the year 1906 the largest dividends ever obtained. It was most peculiar, therefore, that in the face of all these favorable indications there should have been talk of a financial crisis. The Germans, however, prophesied some such event by means of the various statistical records which they keep. As in the United States, fall in the price of copper forced down the price of all other articles of commerce. The standard set by the German syndicates prevented wild fluctuation of stocks that would otherwise have occurred.

The economic condition of Germany naturally revolves around the financial system of the government.

The increase of the imperial budget from year to year would seem to indicate that the present sources of revenue are not sufficient. To enumerate: There is, first, revenue derived from industries in which government funds are invested, such as postal, telegraph service, and many government railroads; second, revenue derived from duties on imports; third, enforced taxes from the federated states of Germany. With the tremendous resources which the country has for collecting revenue, it is rather remarkable that the yearly budget should be on the increase, and that the present debt amounts to over $1,000,000,000. It is, however, easy to see that the tremendous activities of the German Empire must necessarily require a larger expenditure of the public funds than almost any other country.

Financial and public organizations have had great influence on the general trend of the industrial and commercial economy of the nation; and while the uncertainty of the budget has impeded the financial market, the organization of the Reichsbank and the Kreditbanken has tended to produce in Germany an industrial advancement which is most phenomenal.

What judgment should we pass on the condition of Germany, all told? The uneasiness that was caused toward the close of 1907 is well remembered. . . . The excessive rates of interest on advances of money that obtained helped to increase the general anxiety; the bulletins from New York led European financiers, particularly in London and Paris, to establish involuntarily certain analogies and to fear surprises like those of which they had been witnesses and, in some cases, victims during the autumn.

The general condition of Germany is reassuring. People are too apt to judge a country's finance by the state of the market, and are driven into a panic by a shrinkage of values of certain of their large industries. Germany's natural resources, with its rich mineral districts, fertile soil, excellent railroad system, rivers and canals, and a commercial fleet second to none, cannot fail in an advance along the industrial lines which make a country rich and powerful.

The more we reflect upon it the more certain we are that the crisis of 1907 was the natural reaction from an exceptionally prosperous period. It is impossible to predict the exact date when Germany, like the rest of the world, will again enjoy the brilliant times of 1899 and 1906, with their manifold demands for products, rise in salaries and prices, the enthusiasm of industrial centers and financial markets. But we are sure of the return of the time which must be ever present to those who are willing to rise above the agitation of the moment, and who can perceive at a glance the assured advance of economic evolution.

LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

STOCKS FOR INVESTMENT.

IN the office of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS lies a pile of letters in which readers of the magazine describe previous experiences in buying stocks. Some of the stories call for congratulations and advice for the future. Others are heartrending.

In reading them all over, any one of intelligence, even though he had never given a moment's thought to the subject of buying stocks, could not fail to be impressed by the value to the stock investor of *a little elementary information before the purchase.* This was what the "lucky" investors conspicuously possessed, and what the "unlucky" ones as conspicuously lacked. Beyond this, simple common sense sufficed in most cases.

Nor does the foreknowledge necessary to an investor involve a long study of "high finance." Several magazines are now giving non-technical information of great value. Below, some review is made of recent articles in *System,* the *World's Work,* and the London *Economist,* which suggest in brief the main facts for the stockholder.

On comparing such articles with the actual experiences already referred to, two plain principles make themselves apparent. They should be laid down to every one about to buy stocks for investment:

(1) "A bond by nature is a fixed debt; a stock by nature is an indefinite risk. You must follow the example of the life-insurance companies and *average your risks* among as great a number of stocks as can conveniently be bought with the sum at your disposal."

(2) "The issues which may be called investment stocks are well known to bankers, and divide themselves into broad classes. You must choose that class which is suitable to your requirements and temperament."

After this, the clergyman would not have put all of his scanty hoard into a couple of "industrials" which were locally recommended, and which are now worth not more than half what he paid for them. Nor would the hard-driven, nervous doctor have bought an assortment of very speculative railroad common stocks whose price-antics have kept him on pins and needles ever since.

One of the successful investors is a woman, with holdings of bonds, who took advantage of the tax-free quality, and consequently high yield, of stocks to raise her income. She bought an assortment in the better railroads and industrials, averaging her nearly 6 per cent., and thereby raising her total income from the 4¼ per cent. of her mortgage bonds to more than 5 per cent.

Then there is the man with regular savings who is taking advantage of the low denomination of stocks to form the investment habit. Since most investment stocks have a par value of $100 and may be bought at from $75 to $150, he is able each month or so to add a share of a different railroad stock to his safe-deposit box. He will in time have a well-distributed investment built up, which he may sell out and turn into staple bonds if conditions are promising.

All a stockholder gets is "remnants." To call it a "residuary share" is more precise and dignified. The first may be thought more expressive. The corporation's net earnings must go first of all toward paying all principal and interest due to its holders of bonds, notes, and other evidences of fixed debt. What is left over may be needed in part, or perhaps in whole, to improve the property or to repair the wear and tear of the past year. Then come the "remnants" for dividends to the stockholders. Whether they will be twice as much or half as much next year, no man knows. Hence an uncertainty as to the price of many common stocks,—even when the bonds of the same company vary but a few dollars in value year after year.

The situation is put in legal form by George Garr Henry, writing in *System:*

> The distinction between bonds and stocks is that between *promises to pay* and *equities.* Bonds, loans on collateral and real-estate mortgages represent some one's promise to pay a sum of money at a future date; and if the promise be valid and the security ample, the holder of the promise will be paid the money on the date due. Stocks, on the other hand, represent only a beneficial interest or residuary share in the assets and profits of a working concern after payment of its obligations and fixed charges. The value of the residuary share may be large or small, may increase or diminish, but in no

case can the holder of such a share require any one, least of all the company itself, to take his share off his hands at the price he paid for it, or, indeed, at any price.

If a man buys a $1000 railroad bond, he knows that the railroad, if solvent, will pay him $1000 in cash when the bond matures, but if he buys a share of railroad stock his only chance of getting his money back, if he should want to, is that some one else will want to buy his share from him at the price he paid for it or more. If he buys a bond he becomes a creditor of the company, without voice in its management, but entitled to receive his principal and interest when due under pain of forfeiture of the security which the company made over to the trustee to insure payment. If he buys stock, he becomes a partner in a business enterprise, exercising his proportionate share in the direction of the company's affairs and sharing ratably in its profits and losses. In the one case he buys a promise to pay and in the other an equity.

THE INVESTMENT STOCK.

Some companies have two or more classes of stock, one class being "preferred" over another in its claim upon the "remnants" or "surplus available for dividend payments after improvements," as it is called in the reports. It may be that the first class or classes of stock,—the "preferred,"—are very small in amount, so that the sum needed to send every stockholder a dividend check consumes only a few hundred thousand dollars, for example, out of a "remnant" which for years past has never been less than several million. Such preferred stocks could be said to be real investment securities, totally different from the common stock which follows them, and which may be of the most speculative sort.

The Union Pacific Railroad furnishes an illustration: Its preferred stock receives dividends at the rate of 4 per cent. a year. For seven years its price has varied only between 75 and about 100, following very closely the prevailing rate for money on well-secured investments.

During this same period the common stock has fluctuated between 71 and 195. Its dividend has meanwhile been increased from 4 to 10 per cent. As to the continuance of its 10 per cent. dividend, making the stock attractive at its present price, one has only "hope."

But that the limited 4 per cent. dividend on the preferred stock will continue to be paid is a fair certainty as things go in the financial world. In 1904 the road earned more than four times enough to pay this dividend; in 1905 more than five times enough; in 1906 over six times enough, and in 1907 more than nine times enough. Similar in nature are Atchison preferred, B. & O. preferred, Norfolk & Western preferred, Reading 2d preferred, Southern Pacific preferred, St. Paul preferred.

To return to the article in *System:* Mr. Henry calls attention to the fact that preferred stocks are not the only good income producers.

STOCKS WITH INVESTMENT CHARACTER.

Many common stocks without any restriction or preference of dividends receive something of an investment character when the company piles up a surplus,—"money in the bank," or in investments.

In good years, when the company earned 10 or 15 per cent. on its stock, their policy was to pay only 5 or 6 per cent. in dividends, and hold the rest in their surplus fund in order to have the means of paying the same dividends the next year if only 2 or 3 per cent. should be earned. By giving their stock stability of income return they hoped and expected to give it some stability of market price, and thus make it attractive to genuine investors. The effect of this policy has been unquestionably successful, and one after another the stocks of our more important transportation systems and other large undertakings have passed into the hands of investors.

At this point the practical reader will want to know which railroad companies are now considered to be in possession of promising surpluses. The London *Economist* undertook to grade American railroad stocks recently. "What may be called the investment shares" in the *Economist's* opinion are Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul; Great Northern; Illinois Central; Louisville & Nashville; New York Central; Northern Pacific, and Pennsylvania.

GOOD VALUES BUT QUEER PRICES.

A number of railroads, and industrial companies also, seem to occupy a strong position financially, if one may judge from their published reports. Yet their stocks execute the most astonishing maneuvers in price,—seemingly without regard to value. This phenomenon has cost many investors dear. They are attracted by a sudden rise in price of a stock, gulled by rose-colored reports of "new development," etc., which are to give it an added value. They buy high. Suddenly the stock drops; they become frightened, conclude something is wrong, and sell low.

In many cases the stocks which behave thus have undoubted value and should be held through thick and thin, if once bought, ir-

respective of price jumps. "Dividend-paying shares of the second class," the *Economist* terms these; "keenly sensitive to Presidential messages, to metal statistics and the like; well adapted to the purposes of scheming wire-pullers, and ready to jump up or down at a moment's notice from the stage-manager."

Union Pacific, already mentioned, is one of these stocks, and others are Atchison; Baltimore & Ohio; Norfolk & Western; New York, Ontario & Western; Reading; Southern Pacific; U. S. Steel Common and Preferred.

Price fluctuations are not peculiar to this class, of course; Great Northern executed a drop from 348 to 116⅜ in a little over a year. But part of its high price was accounted for by the valuable ore certificates offered to stockholders.

"KNOW THYSELF."

Here are three fairly distinct classes of stocks: (1) the investment stock, backed by earnings far more than sufficient to pay its limited dividend; (2) the stock with investment character, won by the company's policy of rolling up a surplus in the good years sufficient to maintain its dividend through the bad; (3) the very speculative stocks that may be wire-pulled a long way up or down from their true value, although this value may be very respectable.

Now the investors whose stock purchases came out right took into account, as stated at the beginning of this article, not only the nature of stocks, but also their own natures. The average woman, or the man who is conscious of "nerves," seems to do best with the first class of stocks,—those which are limited in some way, and which consequently vary less in price than the second and third classes.

Neither need the man or woman be ashamed of such conservatism. The average investor has more to lose than to gain through holding securities that change rapidly in price. History shows that it is the public which buys stocks when they are high from the rich man, and that it is the rich man who buys stocks from the public when they are low. That is one difference between the rich man and the public.

The psychology of the situation is expressed with some force by C. M. Keys in an article, "How the Stock Exchange Works," in the *World's Work*. "Human nature is human nature; it's just as natural for the average man to worry when he has stocks as for the average woman to worry when she has children. Therefore a rumor of trouble ahead affects the man much as a rumor of scarlet fever down the street affects the woman."

The writer was speaking of the Stock-Exchange trader who holds stock on a margin; but his illustration exactly represents the state of mind of many investors for income who have told the REVIEW OF REVIEWS of their experiences.

This is the reason that investment experts show such high favor to bonds. The banker with a long list of satisfied customers will usually be found to have advised conservative, well-secured bonds as the major part of their holdings.

ADVANTAGES OF STREET-RAILWAY BONDS.

SOME cautions were laid down for the prospective investor in the bonds of "public utilities," especially street railways, in the May number of this magazine. This month, occasion arises for outlining their advantages. As compared with railroads and manufacturing enterprises, street railways, properly run, show a striking *stability* of earning power. Thus the bondholder may feel well assured that his interest can be paid.

In the average thriving city of middle size, for example, the inflow of workers in the morning and the afternoon outflow of home and pleasure seekers take place every day, independent of any single industry, crops, exports, Wall Street, politics, or any other general economic factor. And the street railway, which makes this human ebb and flow possible, keeps gathering in its harvest of nickels in "good times" or "bad."

PROPERLY MANAGED.

When it comes to deciding whether a given street railway is or is not properly managed, the investor, of course, should confer with a banker who has made himself an expert in this form of security. But it will be best if the investor first informs himself

as to the ideals of street-railway conduct. Essential among these is the keeping of the road in good physical condition.

Many street railways, especially those with small mileage in small communities, were not constructed in the first place on a sufficiently high standard. Many more do not set aside month by month sufficient money for "depreciation," or wear and tear. About 10 per cent. of the total gross earnings may be necessary. Obviously, such a road as this may show net earnings 50 or 100 per cent. above the amount necessary to pay the interest on its bonds,—for a while,—and still be a poor investment.

AN ACTUAL ILLUSTRATION.

"With the object of giving a comprehensive understanding of a sound street-railway property," says Charles Lee Scovil in *Success*, "the writer will illustrate from one which is generally recognized as being operated to the very best advantage from every standpoint."

The particular company operates about 120 miles, measured as single track, located in a city of about 400,000 population. It also operates the entire central station electric light and power business of the city, and does the city lighting. The franchises for the generation and sale of electricity for light, heat, and power purposes are unlimited in time and cover the entire city. The street-railway franchises do not expire until many years after the maturity of all the outstanding bonds; a point concerning which investors should always inform themselves. The total outstanding bonded debt of the company is $12,200,000, and the capital stock, which receives dividends at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum, $13,500,000. Practically all of the capital stock represents cash; another point concerning which investors should always inform themselves.

During the past five years the first mortgage 5 per cent. bonds of this particular company have sold at prices between about 98 and 110 and interest, representing stability of market comparing favorably with the highest type of investments in this country.

It is generally recognized as being a fact that the physical condition of this property is maintained upon the highest standard of efficiency, and that scrupulous attention has been paid to the maintenance and continued improvement of the power plants, distributing systems, and railway lines, and to every detail of organization, the object being to place the property in the most effective condition for the accommodation of the public and for economical operation. The company has accumulated fire insurance and injuries and damage reserve funds aggregating several hundreds of thousands of dollars, the money being invested in bonds.

WHO SHOULD BUY SUCH BONDS.

Bonds like these are peculiarly suited to the investor dependent upon income. With a yield of 5 per cent. or more, they may be considered as safe as many of the railway mortgage bonds which yield only from 4 to 4½ per cent. The reason is that street-railway bonds are rarely dealt in on the principal stock exchanges, and are not so readily sold as the "active" railroad issues.

Of course, as has been stated many times before in these columns, and in the publishers' correspondence with readers, no investor should put the greater part of his capital into any single issue of these or of any other securities. Distribution as wide as possible is one of the ideals of scientific investment.

But an assortment of the bonds of such well-conducted street railways as the one Mr. Scovil describes, situated in different parts of the country, might well form a large portion of the investment of a woman or retired business man dependent upon income. In few other ways could so large an income be realized under such prudent conditions.

BUYING BONDS IN SMALL AMOUNTS.

UNQUESTIONABLY, sums of a few hundred dollars are safely and profitably employed when they are left in a good savings-bank. Particularly is this the case in New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and in half a dozen other States, where the laws regulating the investment of savings-bank funds form a great protection to the depositor.

Often, however, it is wise for the owner of a few hundred dollars to begin to become an investor as well as a depositor. The investing habit is as important as any other good habit. And the regular purchase of securities is an excellent device for compulsory saving. Moreover, it may take a little time to sell a security, and thus many unwise expenditures are postponed until second thought comes to one's aid.

Under the advice of a friendly and responsible banker one's savings may prudently be put, for instance, into some of the high-grade

railroad bonds that come in small denominations. A few are issued in amounts less than $1000. The following, which a banker might recommend to the small investor, may be obtained in sizes as low as $500.

Pennsylvania convertible 3½s of 1915	$460	4.91%
Union Pacific convertible 4s of 1927	$460	4.65%
Southern Pacific refunding 4s of 1955	$460	4.40%

(The second column above gives the price at which a $500 denomination may now be bought. It is merely a coincidence that all are now selling at the same price; they were chosen as examples of "short-term," "medium-term," and "long-term" bonds. The third column shows the actual yield to the investor at present prices. The reason the Pennsylvania bond yields the investor most, although its coupon is for a lower rate, lies in its early maturity. In only seven years the Pennsylvania Railroad will pay the holder of the bond $500, or $40 more than its present price in the market. This $40 must be figured in the "yield," of course.)

These $500 bonds are not bought and sold on the New York Stock Exchange, or among banking-houses on the "Street," with the same frequency as the $1000 denominations. Therefore it may take a little longer to sell one at a satisfactory price.

Even more is this the case with $100 denominations. For this reason it is well that the holder of small savings who buys $100 railroad bonds should keep some cash in the bank for emergency needs.

An article entitled "How to Invest Small Sums," in the *Saturday Evening Post*, explains why these $100 bonds are not more widely known.

Most railroad and other corporations do not like to issue them because they involve much extra clerical work, especially in transferring them. Then, too, there is the added expense of having them engraved. There has not been a very broad market for them either, and, as a result, they do not figure as often in the records of bond sales or in the financial news generally as do the bonds of larger denomination. But the fact is that these one-hundred-dollar bonds may be had, and in some of the best-known railroads.

Among the types of one-hundred-dollar bonds are: Norfolk & Western Consolidated 4s, due 1996; Chicago, Burlington & Quincy (Denver Extension) Collateral Trust 4s, due 1922; New York, New Haven & Hartford Convertible Debenture 3½s, due 1956; and Colorado & Southern Refunding Mortgage 4½s, due in 1935.

Most of the one-hundred-dollar railroad bonds may be bought below par, which keeps the investment well within the hundred-dollar limit.

The hundred-dollar bond is not confined exclusively to the railroads. It may be had in industrial companies, too, such as, for example, the General Electric Company, and the American Tobacco Company, the latter also having fifty-dollar pieces.

Industrial bonds, of course, should be bought with great caution by the small investor. He should confine himself to such issues as are recommended for his particular requirements by a banking-house of long experience and success in the handling of "industrials."

The very safest class of bonds for the investment of small sums is that known as "municipals." Many cities, towns, villages, and other municipal organizations raise money by selling bonds in denominations as low as $10. The city of New York does so, and some of its issues will yield the investor more than 4 per cent. at present prices.

Some banking-houses make a specialty of municipal bonds in different sections of the country. By inquiring among these houses a reader of this magazine, no matter where he is situated, can very likely receive a list of municipal "offerings," some of which would be tax exempt in his locality, and which he might buy in small denominations.

BUYING BONDS ON THE INSTALLMENT PLAN.

A device for saving which is valuable to many investors is the purchase of bonds on the installment plan. The *Saturday Evening Post* outlines this method also.

By a plan, originated and put into practice by one of the largest bond and investment houses of New York, you can buy a bond by paying 10 per cent. of the par value down and the remainder in regular installments. With a thousand-dollar bond, the initial payment down would be $100. The bond is transferred to you at the outset, but is held by the house until final payment is made. You pay interest on the balance due at the current rate of interest. But, meanwhile, the bond is earning interest right along and the interest coupons are credited to you as they come due.

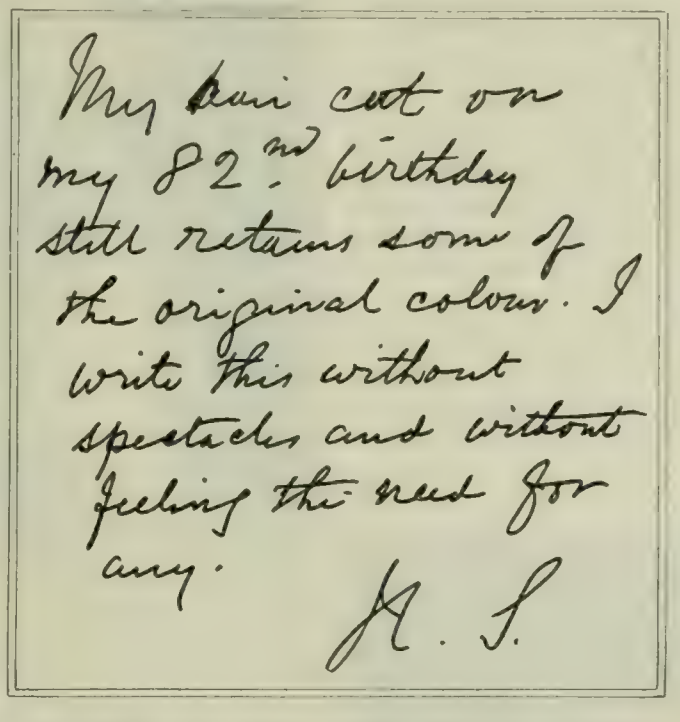
Whether you invest in large or small sums, it is important to buy your investment through a house of the highest integrity, because the character of the house is one of the best guarantees of the investment. Bonds may be bought by mail from houses that meet these requirements. The time has come when the small investor gets the same consideration as the large one. A postal-card from anywhere to one of these houses will begin a flow of concrete, helpful information.

THE NEW BOOKS.

THE AUTHORIZED BIOGRAPHY OF HERBERT SPENCER.

IN studying the life of a man like Herbert Spencer the human personality and the development of the scheme of thought are of even more intense interest than the finished philosophy itself. These sides of the great man's career are shown to much better advantage in the new authorized biography* by Dr. David Duncan (one of the Spencer Trustees) than in the voluminous "Autobiography" issued four years ago. The present volume possesses additional interest from the fact that it contains a brief account of the philosopher's life after the date at which the autobiography concludes.

Dr. Duncan plainly shows in this series of letters that, despite his shortcomings, Mr. Spencer, like all the finer natures, shrank from "parading the more attractive and lovable aspects of his character,"—thus permitting an apparent justification for the opinion that he was "all brains and no heart." In a number of letters, however, is revealed the kindly human side of the philosopher, amounting even to boyishness at times. To Tyndall, Huxley, and E. L. Youmans he frequently wrote expressions of emotional depth unsuspected by the student of his philosophic creations. His frank, almost exuberant, letter to Mr. Andrew Carnegie, acknowledging an unexpected gift, is further evidence of a latent buoyancy in his nature. In most respects, further says Dr. Duncan, Spencer was a model clubman. He always showed delicacy and good feeling, was the pink of courtesy, and "invariably evinced that tactful good nature in which he thought himself deficient."



FAC-SIMILE OF A NOTE ACCOMPANYING A LOCK OF HERBERT SPENCER'S HAIR.

Dr. Duncan's editing has been skillfully done, and it is not difficult to read through the letters of Mr. Spencer himself and the few written to him by others which are inserted in these volumes the temperamental as well as intellectual development of the man. His seriousness was one of the legitimate outcomes of the character and temperament of his immediate ancestors. His grandfather, in Spencer's own words, was "one of the most melancholy-looking men I ever saw." His father, saddened by the loss of seven children, according to a letter to Herbert's mother, was "reduced by ill health to a state of wretchedness bordering on insanity." These influences on the early life of the philosopher injected into his temperament that strain of seriousness so characteristic of his writings. He was not, however, without his ideas of healthy humor. He tells, for example, in a letter to Mrs. Lecky, how, in order to guard himself "against those errors of judgment that entail mischievous consequences," he desires to submit all his manuscripts hereafter (the letter is dated February, 1892) to "one or two ladies who shall act as *Grundyometers*." The chapters on marriage and parenthood in the "Principles of Ethics" were submitted to several ladies who had consented to act in this capacity for him.

During the early days, when Spencer vacillated between engineering and literature as a profession, and constantly tormented himself with the growing conviction that he could not make a success of the latter, there were many instances of failure and some of success at writing which are recorded by Dr. Duncan. His earliest attempt to write for the press was late in 1835. In a letter to his father, early in the next year, he tells with great pride how he has had an article in the first issue of the *Bath and West of England Magazine*, on the subject of salt crystallization. "My article looked very pretty. . . . When I saw it I began shouting and capering about the room. . . . I suppose I shall be getting immensely proud very soon. Indeed, upon reading this letter over I find that it savors a good deal of it. But I must try to strive against it as well as I can."

Among Mr. Spencer's most interesting utterances on international questions Dr. Duncan quotes from a letter to Dr. Youmans Spencer's request for "a supply of typical illustrations of the way in which your [American] political machinery acts so ill,—its failures in securing life, property, and equitable relations. I want to use the case of America as one among others to show how baseless is the notion that the form

* Life and Letters of Herbert Spencer. By David Duncan. Appleton. 2 vols., 858 pp., ill. $5.

of political freedom will secure freedom in the full sense of the word."

Dr. Duncan quotes also several letters from Spencer to Baron Kentaro Kaneko, the Japanese statesman, giving Spencer's advice with regard to the first draft for a Japanese constitution. The proposed new institutions, Mr. Spencer held, "should be as much as possible *grafted* upon the existing institutions, so as to prevent breaking the continuity,—that there should not be a *replacing* of old forms by new but a modification of old forms to a gradually increasing extent."

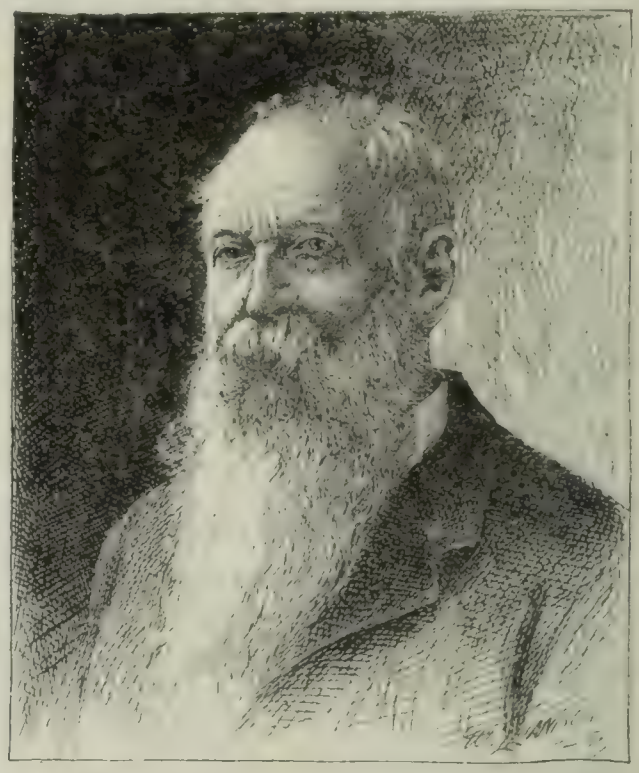
This excellent work concludes with an estimate of Spencer's place in the history of thought and an appendix consisting of an essay by himself, written in 1898-99 and left for publication in this volume, entitled "The Filiation of Ideas,"—"an exceedingly valuable document," says Dr. Duncan, "when we remember the fact that it was Spencer's final contribution to the theory of evolution." The biographer would leave with us the estimate of Spencer made by Prof. Lloyd Morgan: "In this day of increasingly straitened speculation it is well that we should feel the influence of a thinker whose powers of generalization have seldom been equaled and perhaps never surpassed."

RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BIOGRAPHY, MEMOIRS, AND HISTORY.

Reminiscences of Senator William M. Stewart, of Nevada. Edited by George R. Brown. Neale Publishing Company. 358 pp., por. $3.

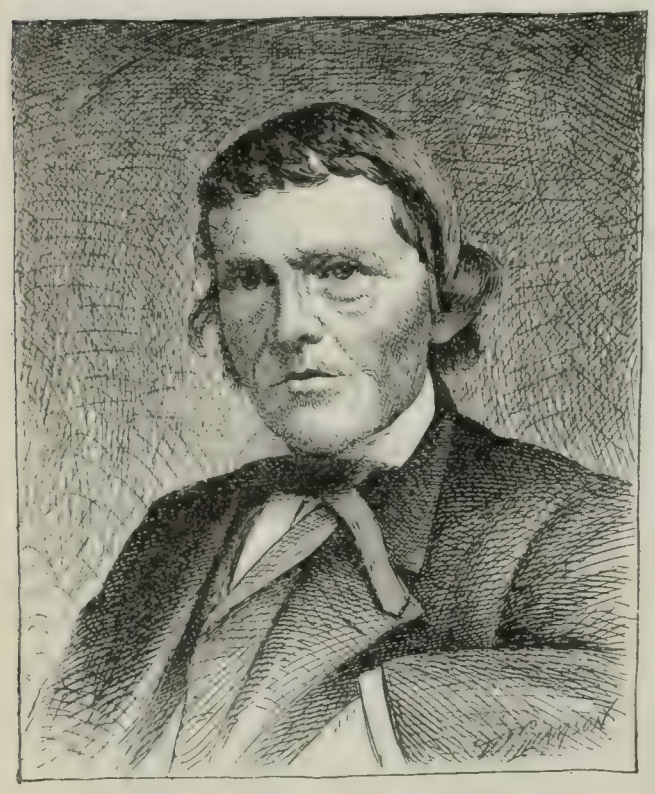
The picturesque career of Senator Stewart, of Nevada, who won and lost two fortunes before leaving public life and then quit politics at eighty years of age and won a third in the Nevada gold fields, certainly offers rich material for a volume of reminiscences. Many extremely interesting episodes of frontier history and the Civil War and Reconstruction periods in Washington are related in this volume, which throws several unexpected and penetrating sidelights on contemporary personalities.



EX-SENATOR WILLIAM M. STEWART.

Alexander H. Stephens. By Louis Pendleton. Philadelphia: Jacobs. 406 pp., por. $1.25.

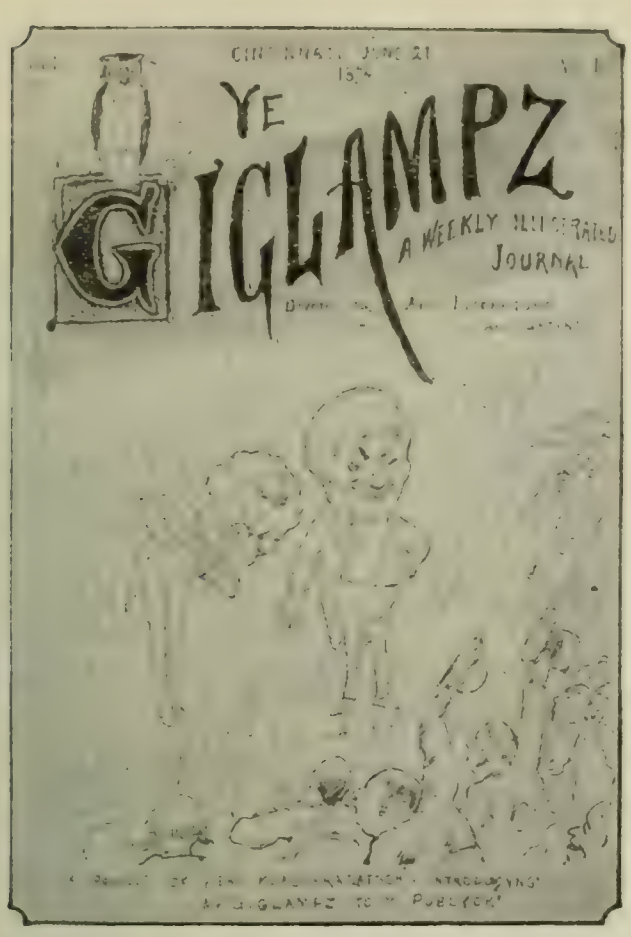
This biography of the Vice-President of the Southern Confederacy appears in the series of American Crisis Biographies. The writer, who is a fellow Georgian, has made a particular study of the State Sovereignty controversy. He has obtained much interesting material from files of Georgia and other Southern newspapers of the '40's, '50's, and '60's, from old letters and scrapbooks of the war period, and from manuscripts in the possession of the Government at Washington.



ALEXANDER H. STEPHENS, OF GEORGIA.

Concerning Lafcadio Hearn. By George M. Gould. Philadelphia: Jacobs. 416 pp., ill. $1.50.

It is a question whether any other literary character of American history, universally not conceded to be of first rank, has been the subject of so much discussion and difference of opinion as that unfortunate citizen of the world, Lafçadio Hearn. There has never been any intelligent reader willing to dispute Hearn's claims to a beautiful, fascinating, and well-nigh perfect English style,—practically all Hearn had, declares Dr. Gould in this latest book, a work which has been the subject of considerable dis-



REDUCED FIRST PAGE OF THE FIRST ISSUE OF "YE GIGLAMPZ."

(Lafcadio Hearn's first venture in the newspaper field.)

cussion on the part of the Hearn "cult." "His entire artistry and unique skill lay in the strange faculty of coloring the echo with the hues and tints of heavenly rainbows and unearthly sunsets, all gleaming with a ghostly light that never was on sea or shore." Hearn had no individual character whatever, Dr. Gould insists. "He was a perfect chameleon, who took for the time the color of his surroundings." The volume under consideration is illustrated with a number of portraits of Hearn at different periods of his life and with other illustrations. It also contains quotations from some of his less-known writings and a bibliography by Laura Stedman. Dr. Gould was the close personal friend who induced Hearn to go to Japan. With the writer's literary studies, however, the biographer has little or no literary sympathy. In short, says Dr. Gould, Hearn was "no product of his environment, but of the school of Flaubert, Gautier, Maupassant, Loti, and Zola, but with such differences and variations that these teachers may not take much credit to themselves.

The Truth about Port Arthur. By E. J. Nojine. Dutton. 395 pp., ill. $1.25.

This is the first really satisfactory connected story about the siege of Port Arthur and its final fall that we have yet seen. M. Nojine was the only accredited Russian war correspondent in Port Arthur during the siege, and he had exceptional facilities for collecting material for his work. The book, which was published in Russia last year, is one long indictment of the régime existing in Russia at the time of the siege and of most of the officials, particularly General Stoessel, who were connected with the defense of Port Arthur. The original Russian has been translated and abridged by Capt. A. B. Lindsay, of the British Indian army, and edited by Major E. D. Swinton, of the Royal Engineers. A number of very interesting illustrations, portraits and others, add much to the value and interest of the volume, and several charts, maps, and tables illuminate the descriptive information with which M. Nojine fairly crowds his pages.

The Struggle for American Independence. By Sydney G. Fisher. Lippincott. 2 vols., 1159 pp. $4.

Mr. Fisher's "True History of the American Revolution," published several years ago in one volume, attracted attention because of the fact that it dwelt on certain phases of the struggle,—as, for example, the treatment of the Loyalists,—in a new and original way. The present two-volume work is a continuation and enlargement of the earlier history, in which the original plan is extended and carried out in more detail. The writer's main purpose has been to make accessible to the reading public the mass of original evidence as to what the Revolution really was. He has made a commendable attempt to deal frankly with this evidence.

Pioneers. By Katharine R. Crowell. New York: The Willett Press. 89 pp. $0.40.

This is a very useful little popularly told story, particularly adapted for children, of the social and economic development of the United States, of the steady progress westward of exploration, settled life, and all the comforts of



MAJOR-GENERAL KONDRATENKO.

(Who, says E. J. Nojine, was the real hero of Port Arthur.)

invention and progress. A unique and very valuable feature is a combination sectional map, designed by B. P. Willett and drawn by B. F. Williamson. By means of a series of ingeniously arranged folds the entire economic and social progress westward of American civilization is depicted

GOVERNMENT, POLITICS, AND BUSINESS LIFE.

The Meaning of the Times. By Albert J. Beveridge. Bobbs-Merrill. 431 pp., por. $1.50.

Senator Albert J. Beveridge, of Indiana, is in the very front rank of progressive American statesmen, and he is one of our most forceful and brilliant orators. It is gratifying, therefore, to see in permanent form a collection of twenty-eight of his notable speeches delivered during the last dozen years on various occasions throughout the country. The volume opens with an illuminating exposition of "The Vitality of the American Constitution." A little further on we find the famous speech on "Our Philippine Policy" with which Senator Beveridge shattered Senatorial precedent by presuming to make a speech in that august body almost within a month from the time he had taken his seat in it. Here also is the Senator's masterly arraignment of the evil of child labor in America, with its powerful argument and abundance of evidence, and his splendid speech in support of our Forest Service, both of which were delivered during the recent session of Congress. His address on "Business and Government," replying to Mr. Bryan's government-ownership proposition in the campaign of 1906, is an excellent presentation of that subject. Besides these, there are important speeches on national expansion, the command of the Pacific, the trusts, institutional law, American business development, the world's debt to Methodism, and memorial addresses on Lincoln, Grant, Oliver P. Morton, Mark Hanna, James Whitcomb Riley, and Frances E. Willard. The last speech in the book, and the one that gives it its title, is "The Meaning of the Times," which has for its text the timely topic of the moral regeneration of American business.

Government by the People. By Robert H. Fuller. Macmillan. 261 pp. $1.

A book that will be found interesting and useful to every American citizen desirous of learning the mechanism of our political system. The author aims to describe how government is carried on by the people in so far as each voter is entitled to share personally in it. The book contains a great deal of practical information about political parties and how they are constituted, how elections are conducted, and some of the devices used to obstruct or nullify the recording of the people's will. Among the topics treated are government by elections, qualifications for voting, identification of voters, the primary election, the nomination of candidates, voting on election day, indirect elections, bribery and intimidation, supplemental safeguards against fraud, experiment and reform, and parties and their organization. An appendix is devoted to "State Regulation and the Voting Privilege," and another contains the party platforms of 1904. The volume is especially timely in view of the wider interest usually taken in the general subject of politics during the Presidential year.

The Government of England. By A. Lawrence Lowell. Macmillan. 2 vols., 1133 pp. $4.

With each chapter the conviction grows upon the reader of this work that Dr. Lowell, who is professor of the science of government in Harvard University, has produced a study of the British government comparable in thoroughness and insight with Mr. Bryce's monumental work on the American commonwealth. While it remains to be seen whether the American's study of the British Government will as soon and as certainly become a classic as the Briton's analysis of the American state and its machinery, it may be safely asserted that the argument of the former is as convincing and his style well-nigh as fascinating as those claims which Mr. Bryce has always successfully made upon the minds of his readers. Professor Lowell, in a luminous and stimulating "Introductory Note on the Constitution," sets forth his conception of the organic law of Great Britain and sets forth graphically his entire point of view. The whole theory of English Government, says Professor Lowell, is to be found in the comparison: "In politics the Frenchman has tended in the past to draw logical conclusions from correct premises, and his results have often been wrong; while the Englishman draws illogical conclusions from incorrect premises, and his results are commonly right, because all abstract propositions in politics are at best approximations and an attempt to reason from them usually magnifies the inaccuracy."

Peoples and Problems. By Fabian Franklin. Holt. 344 pp. $1.50.

In these chapters, which are made up of a collection of addresses delivered upon university and college commencement occasions and editorials appearing in the Baltimore *News* during Dr. Franklin's thirteen years' editorial conduct of that journal, we find the viewpoint that of the thoughtful, cultured American student who has radical ideas but believes in applying them conservatively and the clear, lucid style which characterizes all good newspaper editorial writing. Before entering the field of journalism, Dr. Franklin for some years occupied the chair of mathematics at Johns Hopkins University.

The Case Against Socialism. Macmillan. 537 pp. $1.50.

This work was prepared in England as a handbook for use there in the campaign against the spread of socialism. It comprises a compact statement of the main points in the dispute, with abundant footnote references to authorities. As a campaign textbook it is of more than usual value.

The Principles of Banking. By Charles A. Conant. Harper. 488 pp. $1.75.

This treatment of banking principles has a special pertinency to the current discussion of the currency problem in this country. It explains the theory of a banknote currency and

the trend of modern banking practice toward the idea of a central bank. Mr. Conant includes in the scope of his treatise questions of reserves, State regulation and taxation, and the influence of securities upon banking. Another book by the same author, "Modern Banks of Issue," gives the historical facts which illustrate the principles set forth in the present work.

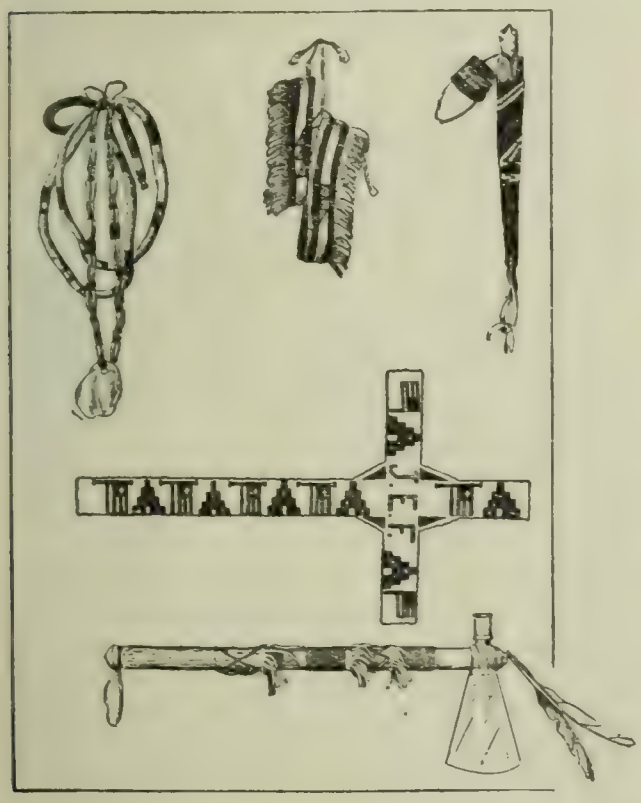
BOOKS OF OBSERVATION AND TRAVEL.

What the White Race May Learn from the Indian. By George Wharton James. Chicago: Forbes & Co. 269 pp., ill. $1.50.

Mr. James has been intimately associated with the Indians of our great West for more than twenty-five years, entering sympathetically into their life and customs and strongly believing that in many essentials to health and happiness the Indian is wiser than the white man. He emphasizes particularly the outdoor life and clean physical existence of the Indian. Many pictures add to the attraction of the volume.

Motoring Abroad. By Frank Presbrey. New York: Outing Publishing Company. 294 pp., ill. $2.

Two things are evident from even a cursory examination of this finely printed and bound volume. The author knows how to enjoy himself thoroughly and he understands how to tell, in crisp, entertaining fashion, what he has seen. He and his wife took their automobile in a go as you please tour through Normandy, Brittany, the chateau country of Touraine, England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales, finding almost everywhere the greatest courtesy and kindliness. A final chapter is taken up with practical suggestions for motoring in Europe. The volume is plentifully besprinkled with illustrations, maps, and charts.



ARTICLES MADE AND DECORATED BY INDIANS.
(Illustration from "What the White Race May Learn from the Indian.")



CHARLES A. CONANT.
(Author of "The Principles of Banking.")

Wanderings in Ireland. By Michael Shoemaker. Putnam. 296 pp., ill. $2.50.

The writer has evidently entered as fully as possible into the spirit of the land he visited,—an island, he says, where "though tears and smiles are near related and sobs and laughter go hand in hand," the almost invariable greeting to the stranger is, "Glory be to God, but your honor is welcome to Ireland." The wanderings were in a motor-car through the most unfrequented portions of the island, and the description is entertaining and informing.

Home Life in Germany. By Mrs. Alfred Sidgwick. Macmillan. 327 pp., ill. $1.75.

A really unusually interesting book this, by a woman who knows both English and German types and treats them with a kindly sympathy, a keen discernment, and a good-natured humor which make highly entertaining reading.

LITERARY STUDIES.

The Cambridge History of English Literature, Vols. I. and II. Edited by A. W. Ward and A. R. Waller. Putnam. 1165 pp. $5.

Of the fourteen volumes comprising this work the first two have now appeared,—the first covering the period from the beginnings of English literature down to the time of Chaucer, and the second carrying the treatment on to the end of the Middle Ages. In the preparation of this work each division of the subject has been intrusted to an accepted authority, while the editors, Dr. A. W. Ward and Mr. A. R. Waller, retain responsibility for the charac-



PROFESSOR JOSIAH ROYCE.
(Author of "The Philosophy of Loyalty.")

ter of the work as a whole. Three American writers,—Prof. Francis B. Gummere, of Haverford College; Prof. Frederick M. Padelford, of Washington University, and Prof. John Matthews Manly, of the University of Chicago,—contribute chapters to the second volume. The editors announce that the third volume, entitled "Renascence and Reformation," is in press, and it is hoped that this volume will be published before the close of the present year.

The Technique of the Novel. By Charles F. Horne. Harper. 285 pp. $1.50.

Materials and Methods of Fiction. By Clayton Hamilton. New York: Baker & Taylor. 228 pp. $1.50.

Types of English Literature (Tragedy). By Ashley H. Thorndike. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 390 pp. $1.50.

Professor Horne, who is assistant in the department of English at the College of the City of New York, and Mr. Hamilton, whose thought-provoking criticism and essays are well known to magazine readers of to-day, have attempted much the same task and both succeeded, it seems to us, very well. Professor Horne's book is not a history of the development of novel technique, but rather an analysis of fiction from the earliest forms to the present. From his study Professor Horne has endeavored to formulate the accepted law. In Mr. Hamilton's volume, which has an introduction by Prof. Brander Matthews, we have presented the result of a study of very many novels and short stories from which the author has deduced and formulated what he regards as the general principles of the art of fiction. Both books should be of value to college students, to young authors, and to literary clubs. Professor Thorndike's volume is on a slightly different order. It is one of the series of "Types of English Literature" which Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are bringing out under the general editorship of Prof. William A. Neilson, of Harvard. Professor Thorndike (English, Columbia) attempts to trace the course of English tragedy from its beginnings to the middle of the nineteenth century and to indicate the part which it has played in the history both of the theater and of literature.

PHILOSOPHICAL ESSAYS.

The Philosophy of Loyalty. By Josiah Royce. Macmillan. 409 pp. $1.50.

Essays Philosophical and Psychological. "In honor of William James." Longmans, Green & Co. 610 pp. $3.

The Philosophy of the Spirit. By Horatio W. Dresser. 545 pp. $2.50.

Dr. Royce, who, it will be remembered, has been professor of the history of philosophy at Harvard for many years, disclaims any intention of writing a textbook; nor is his latest volume, he asserts in the preface, an elaborately technical philosophical research. It is merely "an appeal to any reader who may be fond of ideals and who may also be willing to review his own ideals in a somewhat new light and in a philosophical spirit." America, Professor Royce believes, is ripe for idealism but nevertheless confused by the vastness and complication of its social and political problems. He would gladly, if possible, in this little volume, "simplify men's moral issues, clear their vision for the sight of the eternal, and win hearts for loyalty." An effectual and graceful acknowledgment to Prof. William James in Dr. Royce's preface brings us naturally to a consideration of the really remarkable volume of essays written in honor of the famous psychologist by his colleagues at Columbia University. The volume, called forth by a series of lectures delivered at Columbia early in 1907, is intended "to mark in some degree its authors' sense of Professor James' memorable services in philosophy and psychology and the vitality he has added to those studies." Thirteen essays on philosophical subjects and six on psychological complete the volume. Dr. Dresser's book takes up the same general theme as Professor Royce's, considering, however, "the higher nature of man in relation to the divine presence." Dr. Dresser is author of several other books on kindred topics, including "Living by the Spirit" and "Man and the Divine Order."

The Modern Ideal. By Paul Gaultier. Paris: Hachette & Co. 358 pp. 3 francs 50.

With the thorough scholarship and verve of style which characterize all his books and review writings, M. Paul Gaultier has discussed the "principal problems which face the modern conscience" in a volume just issued by Hachette (Paris) under the title "The Modern Ideal." His point of view is, he declares, a spiritual one. He has divided the volume into three sections, considering in order (1) the moral question, (2) the social question, and (3) the religious question. His chapters consider "The Indepen-

dence of Morality," "The Renaissance of the Ancient Ideal," "The Defense of Individualism," "Morality and Society," "The Crisis of Philanthropy," "True Justice," "Social Enmity," "Morality and Religion," "Science and Faith," and "Religion and the Modern Spirit."

SUGGESTIONS TO HOME BUILDERS AND SMALL FARMERS.

A Little Land and a Living. By Bolton Hall. New York: Arcadia Press. 287 pp., ill. $1.

The author of "Three Acres and Liberty", has followed that very popular little treatise with a book which pursues the same theme with a somewhat different method, giving more detailed information on the subject of small farming, vacant-lot cultivation, building, and equipment. All readers who became interested in the suggestions offered by Mr. Hall in the introductory book will find the facts given in its sequel to be even more valuable and to the purpose. An important feature of "A Little Land and a Living" is a letter addressed to the author by William Borsodi.

The Small Country Place. By Samuel T. Maynard. Lippincott. 317 pp., ill. $1.50.

This book covers not only the treatment of buildings and grounds, but offers definite suggestions regarding the planting of gardens and orchards, poultry-keeping, dairying, and many other interests connected with the small rural or suburban place. The author has passed more than thirty years of his life in teaching botany and horticulture and has endeavored to make his book thoroughly practical. The book is fully illustrated.

Building a Home. By H. W. Desmond and H. W. Frohne. New York: Baker & Taylor. 222 pp., ill. $1.80.

In this volume the editors of the *Architectural Record* offer some fundamental advice for the layman about to build. The purpose of the authors is not so much to present specific house plans as to treat the subject in its broader aspects and by well-considered suggestions to bring the intending builder into a sane mental attitude towards the problem before him. The suggestions made are practical and based upon sound architectural principles.

The Bungalow Book. By Henry L. Wilson. Los Angeles: Published by the author. Ill. $1.

The fact that a second edition of this pamphlet has been demanded shows that the subject is a popular one and that the treatment of it has proved acceptable to many readers. The bungalow is an architectural type that has made great progress in this country during the past few years, since it appeals with peculiar force to the average well-to-do American whose summers are passed either on the sea-shore, in the mountains, or in the vicinity of some of the thousands of fresh-water lakes that dot the maps of many of our interior States. The designs included in Mr. Wilson's series of illustrations are adapted to various locations as well as to various conditions of purse. The estimates of cost given by Mr. Wilson run all the way from $800 to $4000. The plans that he gives are plans that have actually been built upon.

VALUABLE WORKS OF REFERENCE.

North American Trees. By Nathaniel L. Britton. Holt. 894 pp., ill. $7.

This volume, in the American Nature Series, is designed to describe all the kinds of trees known to grow, independently of planting, in North America north of the West Indies and Mexico. The text is accompanied by figures showing the character of foliage, flowers, and fruit, while a number of photographs illustrating the general aspect of certain species have been reproduced. With very few exceptions the drawings have been made from specimens in the museums or herbarium of the New York Botanical Garden. For the convenience of readers not especially trained in botany a glossary of special terms has been appended to the work, but the use of technical words has been reduced to the minimum.

The Catholic Encyclopedia, Vol. III. Edited by Charles G. Herbermann. New York: Robert Appleton Company. 799 pp., ill. $6.

The third volume of this important work opens with the biography of that famous Catholic convert, Orestes Brownson, who early in life left the Presbyterian faith for Universalism and later renounced all Protestant Christianity to embrace the Catholic faith. This volume, like its predecessors, contains a great number of interesting biographical and historical articles, including many which have a general interest entirely apart from their relation to Catholic Christianity.

The New Encyclopedia of Social Reform. Edited by William D. P. Bliss. Funk & Wagnalls. 1321 pp. $7.50.

This is a completely new book, save for a few purely historical economic articles, the subjects of which need no new treatment, but many even of these are either revised or completely rewritten. A comparison of this new edition with the old shows at once that a great improvement has been made. Every article has been written by some specialist on its particular subject. Statements of reform have been written by a believer in the reform, but such statements are usually accompanied by summaries of opposing views. Altogether, this work is invaluable to the journalist or the writer upon sociological topics, and all who have occasion to read widely in this field will find its bibliographical references indispensable.

BOOKS ON HEALTH AND MENTAL HEALING.

Hypnotic Therapeutics in Theory and Practice. By John Duncan Quackenbos, M.D. Harper. 336 pp. $2.

An exposition of hypnotism as a great regenerative force is what Dr. Quackenbos aims to make. Dr. Quackenbos is a member of the London Society for Psychical Research, a fellow of the New York Academy of Medicine, and author of "Hypnotism in Mental and Moral Culture," "Practical Physics," and other works.

The Secrets of Beauty and the Mysteries of Health. By Cora Brown Potter. Paul Elder & Co. 273 pp., ill. $1.75

A manual of health and beauty suggestions for women. The volume contains all sorts of good advice, based on the author's stage experiences and travel.

Mental Healing. By Leander E. Whipple. New York: Metaphysical Publishing Company. 280 pp., por. $1.50.

A work issued some years ago, the sixth edition of which has just been brought out by the Metaphysical Publishing Company.

Health Through Self-Control in Thinking, Breathing, Eating. By William A. Spinney. Boston: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard. 310 pp. $1.20.

Mr. Spinney, who is a teacher of mental and physical culture in Boston, believes that self-control in thinking, breathing, and doing will work wonders in the way of physical health.

Nursing the Insane. By Clara Barrus, M.D. Macmillan. 409 pp. $2.

Dr. Barrus has been for many years woman assistant physician in the State Homeopathic Hospital at Middletown, N. Y.

OTHER BOOKS OF THE MONTH.

The So-Called Peters-Hilprecht Controversy. By H. V. Hilprecht. Philadelphia: A. J. Holman & Co. 353 pp.

All who are interested in the proceedings before the board of trustees of the University of Pennsylvania relative to the work of Professor Hilprecht should read this volume, or at least a synopsis of the evidence which it offers, before attempting to form any conclusion on the subject. In these pages Professor Hilprecht puts a full statement of his case as an appeal, not to the sympathy of his readers, but to their calm and dispassionate judgment.

The New Horoscope of Missions. By James S. Dennis, D.D. New York: Revell. 248 pp. $1.

Dr. Dennis is a universally recognized authority on the subject of missions, and students of the subject will find interesting and valuable this summary, from a missionary point of view, of the significance of Japan's development and China's awakening. The volume is made up of a series of lectures delivered last year at the McCormick Theological Seminary in Chicago.

American Industry. By Achille Viallate. Paris: Felix Alcan. 492 pp. 10 francs.

A careful, scholarly study of American economic and industrial conditions, by Prof. Achille Viallate, of the School of Political Science of Paris, has just appeared from the press of Felix Alcan. It is entitled "L'Industrie Américaine." The work is divided into three parts, the first treating of the industrial evolution of the country historically, the second describing the organization of American industry, and the third attempting to give a graphic outline of the industrial expansion of the United States. Professor Viallate, it will be remembered, has already written several volumes embodying studies of American diplomacy and development.

Occasionally Studies in the History of Civilization, Vol. I. By Ernst Schultze. Hamburg: Published by the Author. 224 pp. 3 marks.

Dr. Ernst Schultze, who is an old friend to German lovers of the essay, has written a sympathetic little volume on American life and social conditions, under a title which may be freely rendered: "Occasional Studies in the History of Civilization," and which treats especially of the "development and expansion" of the United States. The book is published by the house of Gutenberg, in Hamburg.

What the Army Can Mean for a Nation. By A. Fastrez. Brussels: Misch & Thron. 294 pp.

A carefully prepared estimate of "What the Army Can Mean for a Nation" has been prepared under the foregoing title by M. A. Fastrez for the Institute of Sociology at Brussels and published by Misch & Thron, in the Belgian capital. M. Fastrez endeavors to set forth the biological and social value of an army to any nation, aside from its supreme service in time of war.

On the Training of Parents. By Ernest H. Abbott. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 141 pp. $1.

Mr. Abbott has a keen power of observation and the faculty of being serious without being dull. These chapters on how to bring up children (for it is really child-training come at from the other side) are very thought-provoking and suggestive. Perhaps, after all, our children themselves can best teach us how to train them.

Messages to Mothers, A Protest Against Artificial Methods. By Herman Paftsch, M.D. Paul Elder & Co. 166 pp. $1.50.

The Nutrition of Man. By Russell H. Chittenden. Frederick A. Stokes Company. 321 pp., ill. $3.

Scientific Nutrition Simplified. By Goodwin Brown. Frederick A. Stokes Company. 200 pp. 75 cents.

The Power of Concentration. By Eustace Miles. Dutton. 196 pp. $1.25.

Home Gymnastics According to the Ling System. By Anders Wide, M.D. Funk & Wagnalls. 50 cents.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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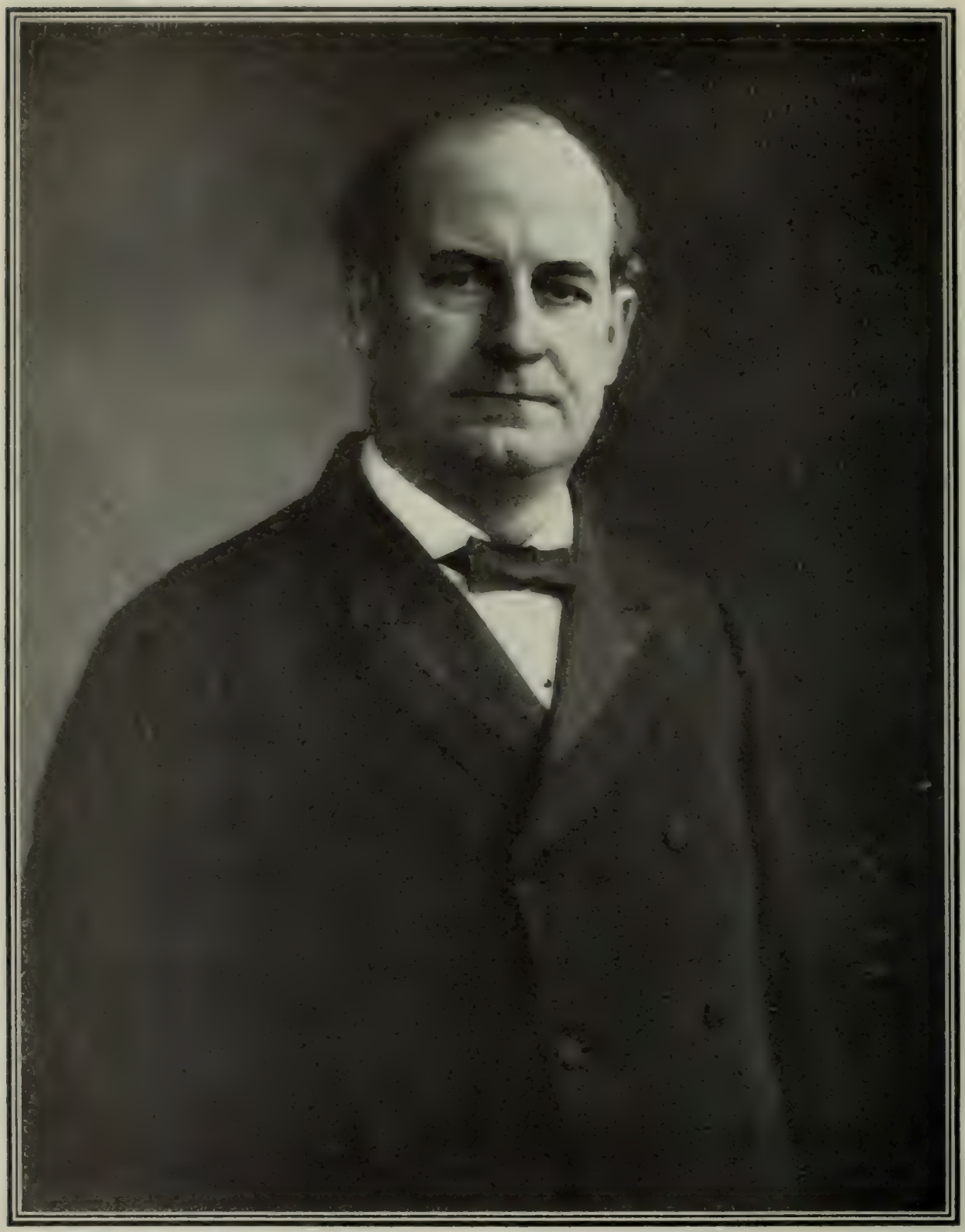
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HON. WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN, OF NEBRASKA.

(Nominated at Denver on July 10 as Democratic Candidate for the Presidency.)

THE AMERICAN
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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Politics as per Schedule.

The events of the political season have thus far been without any great surprises. It had been practically certain for two years that the Republicans would nominate Taft and that the Democrats would nominate Bryan. As the time for the holding of the conventions approached, the well-informed were aware that more than the necessary majority of delegates were pledged in advance to Taft, and that more than the requisite two-thirds of the Democratic delegates were instructed for Bryan or else had so declared themselves. Both of these men are well known to the country. As respects the popularity of the candidates, it is to be said that Taft is personally approved by the entire Republican party, although his nomination was bitterly opposed by most of the machine politicians, while on the other hand Bryan's nomination was made unanimous amid great acclaim at Denver, and yet it is well known that many Democrats of the East and South do not approve of the candidate to whom they have committed themselves.

The "Issues" Are Not Partisan.

Naturally, it will be the endeavor of both sides to make it seem that the issues of the campaign are boldly and clearly defined. As a matter of fact, they are not very well defined, and the intelligent outside observer would find it hard to learn what the fuss is all about. Those who took careful note of the platforms in the process of their making are aware that the resultant documents do not represent any strongly opposed doctrines or tendencies of thought. We are living in a commercial period, and business motives are dominant in our political life. The questions that involve mere sentiment or prejudice are not much in evidence this year. The negro vote, alone, turns upon race feeling, and is not affected by business motives. There is, to be sure, a large element in the South, still surviving, that would in any case vote the Democratic ticket through sectional feeling and through prejudice against the Republican party on account of its name and traditions. But, generally speaking, sentiment is not going to be a ruling factor in this year's campaign, and old-fashioned party prejudice cannot very successfully be played upon.

"Labor" in the Campaign.

Labor as well as capital is dominated by the economic motive. Neither labor nor capital is going to get much advantage as against the other through playing the game of party politics. All factors of economic production must learn to work together for the largest possible production and the most equitable distribution. The law can help to fix the conditions under which the economic processes may go forward without abuse. But otherwise there must be free play of natural forces. Prosperity is not under the sole custody of one party or the other, and no set of politicians is devoted exclusively either to the welfare of capital or labor. Since Mr. Gompers and other leaders of labor organizations desired to have the party conventions committed to the advocacy of certain proposed non-partisan bills at Washington, it was quite right to use their best efforts at Chicago and Denver to impress their views. But because one convention seemed to bid a little more strongly than the other for the good-will of the labor leaders, it would be ridiculous to try to make a cleavage as between the two parties along this particular line.

The Injunction Question.

It is never possible to make a successful party issue out of something that is not intrinsically partisan in its nature or bearings. The injunction question is not fitted to be a subject of party contention, and it does not so lie in men's minds. All good citizens want court processes to be fair and just. There is no

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difference between Republicans and Democrats in this regard. Everybody believes that Mr. Taft, by virtue of his judicial experience, is rather better acquainted with this subject in all its bearings than Mr. Bryan. He has expressed himself very definitely on the subject in recent speeches, and we shall have heard from him again in his letter of acceptance. All of his public experience has shown him to be not only a man of fairness and judicial mind, but also a man of generous heart and large sympathies. He could not possibly wish, of course, to be unfair to workingmen whether organized in trades unions or otherwise. The people of the United States cannot bring themselves to the point of fretting and worrying about a question of this kind. Nor can anybody dragoon them into making a party question out of a movement for giving greater precision and regularity to the methods by which the judges act in certain matters of court procedure. Our tribunals of justice are upon the whole very well-meaning, and made up of men of high average ability. Mr. Taft is in favor of some legislation on the subject of injunctions and so is Mr. Bryan. Those who take the question deeply to heart would do well to ascertain the views of candidates for Congress. No Congressman will consider himself in any way bound by the injunction planks of either the Chicago or the Denver platform.

The Presidency as a "Job."

The labor vote, so called, like the farmer vote and the business men's vote, must and naturally will be cast according to the predilections of the individual voter. It was obvious that in the very nature of the case the Denver platform would endorse more things of an experimental or innovating character than could be forced into the Chicago platform. The Roosevelt Administration has been one of strong effort and considerable performance. Mr. Taft has been a loyal part of that Administration. His positions do not have to be defined for him by party platforms. The principal business of the President of the United States is simply to be President. His ability to set forth a lot of views on a variety of subjects is of comparatively slight importance. The first great duty of a President is to appoint the members of his cabinet. With



BRYAN FACES A DIVIDED FLOCK.

From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia).



MR. AND MRS. WILLIAM H. TAFT AND THEIR SON CHARLES.

(From a picture taken last month at Hot Springs, Va., where Mr. Taft was resting and recreating while holding political conferences and preparing his letter of acceptance.)

a good cabinet, a President might be a man of very mediocre ability provided he has common sense. The business of the Government has to be transacted from day to day. The machinery has vast ramifications. The Roosevelt Administration has carried on the Government upon a very high plane of efficiency and public spirit. The Democrats have shown a surprising amount of appreciation of the virtues of the Roosevelt Administration. Sometimes changes in party control come about through a revolt against inefficient or corrupt methods of administration. No such issues are involved in the present campaign.

New Policies and the Parties.

If a change in party control should come about, it would be due either to a certain restlessness and desire for change as such, or else it would be due to a preference by the country for certain policies supposed to be represented by the party now out of power. But to bring about a change of policies would involve legislation, and there is not much reason to think that it will be possible for some time to come to secure new legislation involving any radical change of program. If the Republicans win, they are pledged to revise the tariff and will certainly do it after a fashion. If Mr. Bryan should be elected, the House of Representatives would probably be very closely divided, while the Senate would remain Republican for some time. Under those conditions it is not likely that much, if any, revision of the tariff could be accomplished. Nor would there be any new legislation about railroads or corporations. If the Republicans win they will try to modify the Sherman Anti-Trust law so as to make it fit better the actual con-

ditions of business. They will probably try to bring the large corporations under at least enough of federal control to secure publicity as regards their financial transactions, and regulation at certain points where there is just ground for criticism. The large business enterprises of the country cannot be broken up and ought not to be. But they must be held strictly accountable to law; they must be taught that they cannot with impunity play the game of corrupt politics. Sound business enterprises, no matter how large, should be protected and encouraged, provided they are doing business in an honest and fair way.

What Will Restore Business?

Labor as a distinct interest, like capital, is chiefly concerned with being profitably occupied. Work for everybody at good wages, and under reasonable conditions, is what the wage-earning classes chiefly desire,—in so far as they have an economic motive that dominates their action in public affairs. For some months past, following the monetary panic of last autumn, there has been a widespread industrial depression, with the result of the stoppage of more than half of the mills and factories of the country. Workingmen of Republican proclivities are not likely to believe that the full resumption of business activity would be accelerated by the election of Mr. Bryan. Business men as a class do not dislike change so much as they dislike uncertainty. They would regard Taft's election as involving less uncertainty than Bryan's. If the Republicans are kept in full power, they will have to deal with three large situations affecting business: First, they will be expected to amend the railway laws in order, on the one hand, to give the railroads a better chance to make agreements and to earn profits, and, on the other, to bring them at certain points under better regulation. Second, the Sherman Anti-Trust law must be modified so that it may not be a menace to legitimate business. Third, the tariff must be revised as quickly as possible. These things being done, there should for several years be no agitation of changes in the statutes that would affect conditions in a fundamental way. The result would be a period of well-justified prosperity.

Notice of Tariff Changes.

Before proceeding, however, to revise the tariff, Congress ought to pass a resolution with regard to the time when tariff changes should go into effect. If the schedules are to be sweepingly changed, business interests affected ought to be given a considerable notice, and this should be done as the very first step. The period between the enactment of the law and its taking effect should not be less than six months, and it might with advantage be an entire year. American business interests could stand almost any change in the tariff if it were understood in advance that they should be allowed a year in which to prepare for the new conditions. Furthermore, if it were declared in advance by joint resolution that a considerable period should elapse before changes should take effect, we should avoid those disturbances that have been usual in the past during the weeks and months when new tariff bills have been under debate, —disturbances caused by uncertainty as to the outcome.

The Denver Occasion.

Our readers will find elsewhere in this number an excellent account of the Denver convention from the pen of Mr. Samuel E. Moffett, who



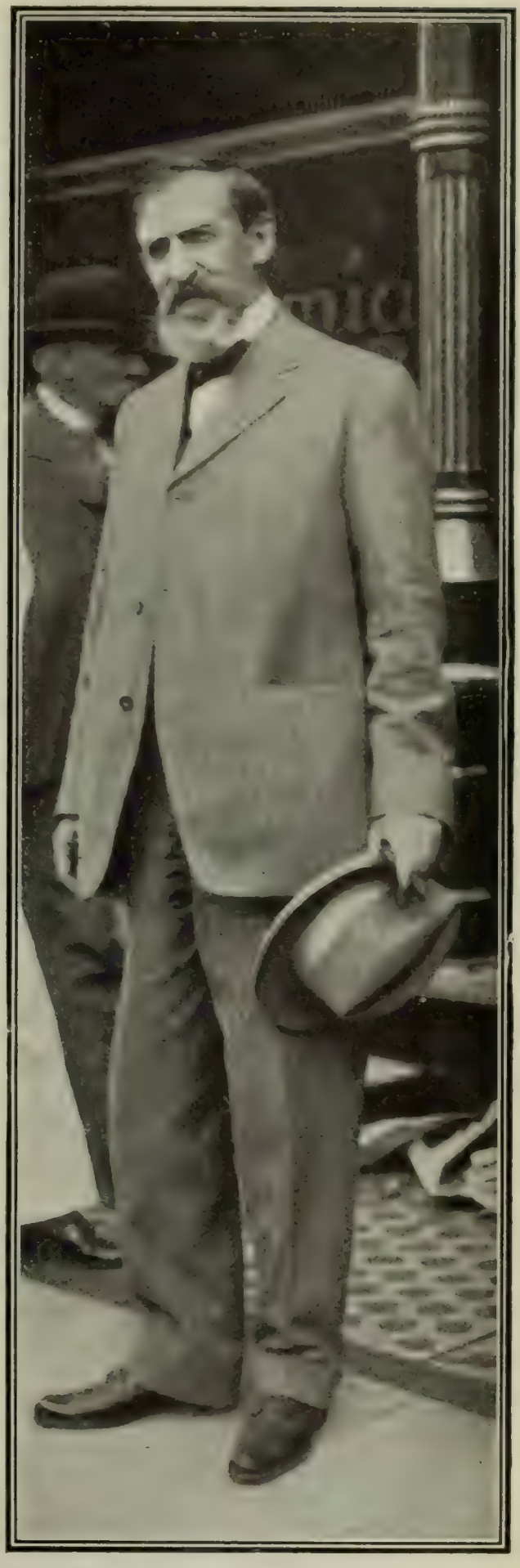
From the *World*, New York.

MR. BRYAN CLASPING THE HAND OF MURPHY (TAMMANY HALL'S BOSS) AFTER THE DENVER CONVENTION.

is able to make some pertinent comparisons from having witnessed also the Republican convention in June. A few votes were recorded for Judge Gray, of Delaware, and Governor Johnson, of Minnesota, but Mr. Bryan had approximately nine-tenths of the delegates on the initial ballot, and the Johnson and Gray men promptly accepted the situation and made it unanimous. The Committee on Credentials at Chicago had thrown out a great number of contestants for seats, but had excluded not a single claimant who had the slightest color of a right to be admitted. The Denver convention did not have to deal with many contests, but it had the courage to exclude two powerful leaders and their immediate groups,—namely, Colonel Guffey, an oil magnate of Pittsburg, head of the Pennsylvania Democracy, and Mr. Patrick McCarren, head of the Democratic organization of the great Borough of Brooklyn, N. Y. The rejection of Guffey, who has had a personal quarrel with Bryan, will cost the party no votes, although it may cost it some money, inasmuch as Guffey has been among the largest contributors to Bryan's previous campaign funds. The rejection of McCarren will probably cost some votes in New York, but the Murphy men had extended the Tammany sway to Brooklyn and had dethroned McCarren, and the Denver convention could better afford to humiliate the Brooklyn boss than to anger the head of Tammany Hall, who now rules the party not merely in New York County, but also throughout the State. Mr. Murphy stopped at Lincoln to pay his respects to the candidate on his way back from Denver. The Tammany alliance is one upon which Mr. Bryan is not to be congratulated, but candidates have to be tolerant.

Vice-Presidential Candidates.

The selection of Mr. John W. Kern, of Indiana, for the Vice-Presidency, is discussed in an article to be found elsewhere in this REVIEW on the character and career of Mr. Bryan's running mate. A large number of candidates for the second place on the ticket were brought forward as Mr. Bryan's preference, but Mr. Kern seems to have had the inside track all the time. He is so little known to the people of the country that our readers will appreciate Mr. Ogg's candid and well-informed article. Neither candidate for the Vice-Presidency is in robust health, and neither of them can make a strenuous speaking campaign. Mr. Kern has recently recov-



HON. JOHN W. KERN.

(From a snapshot taken at Denver last month.)



HON. JAMES S. SHERMAN.
(From a snapshot at his Utica home last month.)

ered from a serious breakdown, and Mr. Sherman, the Republican nominee, has been the victim of a painful illness since the Chicago convention. If Mr. Sherman can make positive contribution to the Republican cause in the State of New York, and Mr. Kern can transmute his undoubted popularity in Indiana into votes for the Bryan ticket, these worthy gentlemen will have done all that can be expected of them. Mr. Weed, of Utica, elsewhere contributes to this number an article on the personality and career of Mr. Sherman.

Platform Buncombe.

The platform adopted at Denver is like that which one expects from a party that has long been out of power. Such a party denounces freely and promises abundantly, because it has lost the habit of being held accountable for its words. The platform begins by demanding that the people shall rule, and we are told that the Government is now in the "grip of those who have made it a business asset of the favor-seeking corporations." The next section denounces the increase in the number of office-holders under the Roosevelt Administration. It says that this clearly indicates "a deliberate purpose on the part of the Administration to keep the Republican party in power," and further says that "this is no less dangerous and corrupt than the open purchase of votes at the polls." This would be dreadful if true, but it is not really believed by any intelligent man in the country. The Government is now run on non-partisan civil-service lines; and it has probably not even entered the head of anybody at Washington to create offices for the sake of keeping the Republican party in control. The next section demands economy in administration and makes sweeping charges of "frightful extravagance," while the next denounces "the absolute domination of the Speaker," and pledges the Democratic party to adopt different rules to regulate business in the House. Yet everybody knows that the present rules have been kept in force by Democratic as well as Republican Congresses. The next section condemns, as the "establishment of a dynasty," Mr. Roosevelt's interest in the nomination of Mr. Taft. As a plain matter of fact every one knows that Mr. Roosevelt did not put one-tenth of the pressure upon the office-holders to secure Mr. Taft's nomination that former Presidents have used to get themselves renominated. If in the future course of our political affairs we shall witness methods no less high-minded and honorable than those pursued by Mr. Roosevelt in the endeavor to prevent his own renomination, we shall be a very fortunate country. These preliminary paragraphs are of course merely part and parcel of that cheap traditional buncombe with which old-fashioned politicians always think it necessary to encumber a party platform. The Republicans do the same sort of thing, although not so recklessly and brazenly as the Democrats.

The Real Platform—Tariff.

The real platform begins with elaborate statements on the subject of campaign publicity. This is an important question, and we shall revert to it in a further paragraph. Next follows the tariff plank, which demands immediate reduction of import duties. Articles competing with trust-controlled products are to be placed upon the free list; material reductions are to be made upon the necessaries of



Photographs by Townsend, Lincoln.

MRS. BRYAN, FROM A RECENT PHOTOGRAPH.



MR. BRYAN, WITH HIS TWO GRANDCHILDREN.

life, and in all the other schedules the tariff is to be brought by means of a graduated scale down to a strictly revenue basis. This is much more specific than the Republican tariff plank. The Republicans are for continued protective duties, with revision of the schedules, and the adoption of maximum and minimum rates, to be used in obtaining advantages from other countries. The Democrats are for sweeping additions to the free list and for an abandonment of the protective principle and the adoption of a tariff for revenue only. With all respect to the makers of the platform, these statements do not seem to be in keeping with the real tendency of Democratic opinion. The dominant element of the Democratic party in Congress comes from the South, and this tariff plank does not accord with Southern Democratic sentiment in so far as we have been able to ascertain it.

Railroads and Trusts.

The plank on the control of railroads is more detailed than that of the Republicans. When studied carefully, however, it contains practically nothing that is at variance with the well-established position of the Roosevelt Administration on the railroad question, and it is diametrically opposed to the railroad policy advocated by Mr. Bryan on his return from Europe. As respects corporations engaged in manufacture and trade, the platform proposes the licensing of those doing as much as 25 per cent. of the business of the country in their own lines. It is further proposed to prohibit any company from doing more than 50 per cent. of its kind of business, and it is further demanded that purchasers be treated alike throughout the country. The proposal to limit corporations to one-half or any other fixed proportion of the business in their particular lines of manufacture or trade is one which it is scarcely worth while to discuss. If any reader supposes that a great party could intend to put such a plank into practice, let him try to think out its application to the various lines of business that he knows something about.

Public Finance in the Platform.

Upon every phase of the subject of finance, the Democratic platform is far from being consistent or definite. The recent large expenditures of the national Government are condemned as criminal, yet the planks of the Democratic platform favor the very policies which have made large expenditures necessary. Captain



HON. IGNATIUS DUNN, OF OMAHA.

(Who made the speech at Denver nominating Mr. Bryan.)

Hobson was an enthusiastic delegate at Denver, demanding a naval policy far beyond anything that the Republicans have supported. He was successful in seeing that the Denver platform made a strong declaration for an adequate navy, sufficient to defend all the coasts of the country. Not the smallest word of criticism is to be found directed against the Republican policy of liberal pensions, and, on the contrary, we find a plank fully endorsing a generous pension policy, and by implication favoring everything that the veterans desire. As respects river and harbor improvement, the platform demands a vast and expansive policy of expenditure. In other words, the very things which have in recent years increased the expenditures of the Government are to the fullest extent endorsed by the Democratic platform. If the Democrats were in power and were to carry out the pledges of this platform, they could not possibly make any material reduction in the cost of carrying on the Government. Among other things, they actually favor the appropriation of federal money to aid the States in the construction and maintenance of ordinary highways, which would open the door for a new form of shameless and extravagant log-rolling legislation, without the shadow of an excuse. If there is anything whatsoever that States and localities are competent to do for themselves, it is to make their own ordinary highways. In short, if this Democratic platform is to be taken as an honest document, we should be launched by a Bryan régime upon an unparalleled epoch of extravagant expenditure. All the forms of liberal appropriation that Republicans are inclined to favor are endorsed in this platform, and a row of additional "pork barrels" is alluringly promised. The money for these vast proposed expenditures is to be secured,—according to this platform,—by getting an amendment to the Constitution which will authorize the levying of an income tax upon individuals as well as upon corporations. The subject of money and currency is so treated in the platform as to be unintelligible, with the exception of one demand,—namely, that calling for a guarantee fund to secure the depositors in banks. The allusions to emergency currency are so written as to be susceptible of contradictory interpretations. The maintenance of the gold standard is not referred to, and the great problem of a permanent reconstruction of the banking and currency system of this country, which is one of our few seriously pressing public questions, is dodged altogether. While something can be said in favor of the guarantee of bank deposits as a means of preventing distrust in times of panic, the real problem to be solved lies far deeper, inasmuch as it involves the creation of a currency and banking system that would not be subject to the dangers that our existing system has to face. Mr. Bryan has discussed this subject in speeches, but the platform dodges it. Since these subjects have always been considered by Democrats as peculiarly their own, the avoidances of the Denver document are rather painful.

The Japanese Question.

There is a mischievous and cowardly plank on the question of Asiatic immigration. As is well known, a strong effort was made to commit the Democratic party at Denver to the movement in favor of the exclusion of the Japanese. That movement takes the form of advocating a bill applying to Japanese and Korean immigrants the same provisions that already exist by law for excluding the Chinese. The plank as adopted is as follows:

> We favor full protection by both national and State governments within their respective spheres of all foreigners residing in the United States under treaty, but we are opposed to the admission of Asiatic immigrants who cannot be amalgamated with our population or whose presence among us would raise a race issue and involve us in diplomatic controversies with Oriental powers.

If this means anything practical, it means that the Democratic party is in favor of the enactment into law of the Japanese Exclusion bill that is pending at Washington. The question of our relations with Japan just now is a delicate one, and a party platform should either treat it frankly or let it alone. Our navy is about to visit Japan at the invitation of the Japanese Government, in the interest of peace and good understanding. The immigration problem on the Pacific Coast is not a question at issue between the two great parties in this country, and the attempt of the Democratic platform to catch Pacific Coast votes by the plank just quoted will not commend itself to the judgment of wise men. The position of this country with respect to kinds of immigration that cannot be assimilated is now perfectly well understood; and it is a reckless sort of partisanship that would try to catch a few votes in a Presidential campaign at the risk of making more difficult the pending efforts to settle the Japanese question by diplomatic means.

Campaign Publicity.

The Democratic platform strongly demands publicity in the matter of campaign contributions, and Mr. Bryan has followed it up by announcing that no funds would be received from corporations. These statements have been made in apparent forgetfulness of the fact that a year and a half ago a Republican Congress passed a law on the subject of gifts to the campaign funds of federal elections, and prescribed heavy penalties for contributions by corporations. The State of New York requires the filing of campaign receipts and expenditures, and the Republicans,—whose national headquarters will be in New York,—have definitely stated that they will regard the New York law as applying to the Presidential contest in so far as they are concerned. Since they have taken this stand, the country will insist that they carry out the agreement in good faith. Every one has known, since the discussion of the contributions by insurance companies four years ago, that the practice of obtaining money from corporations for campaign funds was forever at an end. Gifts will have to come from individuals. Mr. Bryan announces that the Democrats will not receive gifts greater than $10,000 from any one person, and that all gifts exceeding $100 will be announced a few days previous to the election. The Republicans promise to make a full accounting, but this will be under the terms of the New York statute, after the election.

Large Sums Not Needed.

The Republicans will also have a headquarters in Chicago, and probably one still farther West; but the party will expect the chairman of the campaign committee to be in responsible authority everywhere. Although a large part of the fund will be collected and expended without passing through the hands of the



"FAIRVIEW," THE BRYAN HOME AT LINCOLN, NEBRASKA.

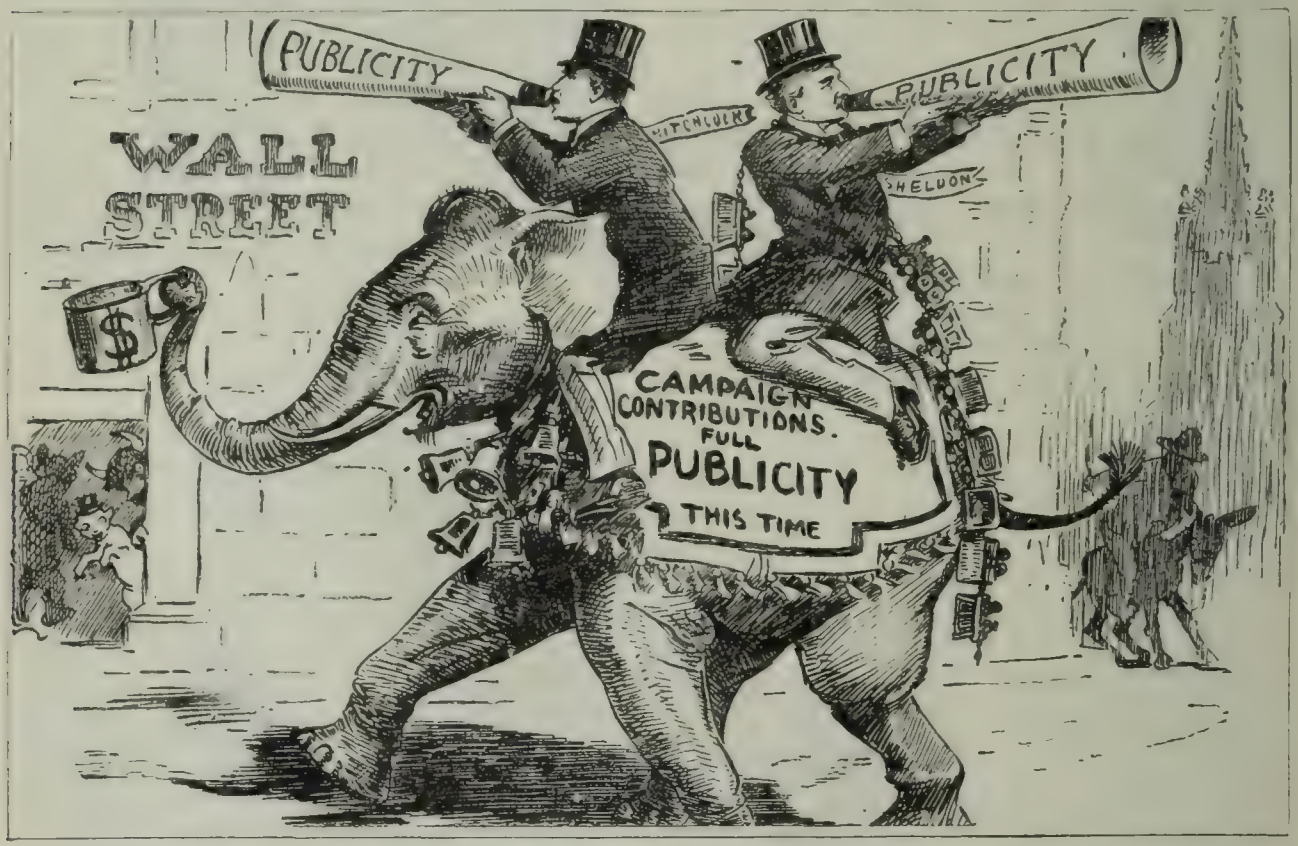
New York treasurer, there should be a complete central report of receipts and expenditures. Whatever may have seemed to be justifiable in the past, there is no need on either side of very large campaign funds this year. It is more important to know how the money is spent than how it is raised. Neither Mr. Taft nor Mr. Bryan will allow himself to be placed under any embarrassing obligations to campaign contributors. Those who give to the one party or the other will do so presumably because they regard their party's success as desirable. Such gifts must not be regarded as placing the Presidential nominees under the smallest kind of personal obligation. The records and opinions of the candidates are already known to the entire country. The newspapers have made all reading voters familiar with the platforms. The letters and speeches of acceptance will be similarly disseminated. In every State, Congressional district, and smaller division there will be a campaign of considerable activity, irrespective of anything done by national committees.

Hitchcock in Command.

There is of course a legitimate work that can best be carried on from national headquarters under direction of the chairman of a national party committee. Mr. Frank Hitchcock, who has been selected by the Republicans for the chairmanship, is a man of exactly the right type. The legitimate function of the national campaign management is one of organization and system, with the object of seeing that the campaign in all parts of the country shall be carried on with as much intelligence and diligence as in those parts which would in any case be well managed. Mr. Hitchcock after his appointment went to Colorado Springs to meet the chairmen of State committees and members of the National Committee living in the West. Later he returned to Chicago for a similar conference of committeemen representing the great central section. It was the plan subsequently to hold an Eastern conference in New York. It was evidently Mr. Hitchcock's intention to find out the conditions existing in all the States, make the National Committee a clearing-house for information, and devise the best way by which to help every State and community to fight its own battle.

Sheldon as Treasurer.

It had been supposed that a Western business man would be made treasurer of the Republican committee, but Mr. George R. Sheldon was finally chosen. Mr. Sheldon has acted as treasurer in New York State campaigns, and belongs as typically as possible to the cor-



PURSUIT OF THE "UNDESIRABLE CITIZEN." "LET NO GUILTY MAN ESCAPE."

From the *Herald* (New York).



IN CONFERENCE ON THE REPUBLICAN CAMPAIGN.

(This photograph, taken last month at Hot Springs, shows, from left to right, Mr. Sheldon, Mr. Taft, Mr. Hitchcock, and Postmaster-General Meyer.)

poration and Wall Street elements. If it was desired to avoid the impression of any relationship whatever with those particular factors in the business community, Mr. Sheldon's appointment could not be regarded as tactful. His business address is at 2 Wall Street, and his name in the "Directory of Directors" shows him to be connected with a long list of corporations of a sort which many people call "trusts." Mr. Taft was sojourning at Hot Springs, Va., when the appointments of the chairman and treasurer of the National Committee were made by a sub-committee, which assembled there to consult the nominee. A whole month had elapsed since the Chicago convention. Mr. Hitchcock's orderly and capable direction of the Taft movement had given him deservedly a high prestige throughout the country for management at once effective and honorable. After the full month's delay and deliberation Mr. Hitchcock was named for chairman, in deference to a judgment that was practically universal at the time of the Chicago convention and that had not changed. The selection of Mr. Sheldon was a surprise, and a high evidence of good faith on the part of Mr. Taft and the sub-committee. For if these gentlemen had not been wholly innocent of designs upon Wall Street and wholly regardless of merely nominal consistency as respects the attitude of certain elements toward the Roosevelt-Taft Administration, they would not have considered for a moment the choice of a New York treasurer. It is obvious enough that Mr. Taft and the committee did not designedly select a Wall Street man for treasurer merely because of his per-



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WHERE THE CAMPAIGN WILL BE RUN.

(The new tower building of the Metropolitan Insurance Company, Madison Square, New York, one floor of which has been rented for Republican headquarters. Our photograph shows the tower in its condition last month, approaching completion. It has fifty stories, and its flagstaff is 700 feet above the sidewalk.)

sonal access to the corporation magnates of the so-called "financial district." It would have been perfectly easy to find a business man in Cleveland, Chicago, or some other Western city, who would have had just as ready access to the financiers and corporation managers, while diverting attention from that fact. Both parties this year evidently intend, in their campaign management, to rely upon an open appeal to public opinion and not upon anything that could by any sensible person be called a corruption fund. The Republicans believe that their success is at present vital to the prosperity of the country, quite regardless of their opinions upon the subject of regulating railroads and trusts. Since their views upon the subject of corporations are well known, they see no reason why men of large financial responsibilities, desirous of maintaining safe and prosperous conditions, should not contribute toward the expenses of an orderly and efficient campaign.

Tell Us, Also, Where the Money Goes.

Mr. Hitchcock will render a high and patriotic service not only to the party but to the country if he will show that a lively, aggressive, open campaign can be fought without the expenditure of a large sum of money. He will do well to let us all know where the money comes from, but he will interest us much more by giving us a full account of the methods under which he pays his money out. It is taken for granted that business men, by a large majority, want to see Taft elected, and that they are willing to contribute generously toward a moderate and well-expended fund. Mr. Sheldon will serve the chairman and the committee, in his capacity as treasurer, along whatever lines may be laid down as proper.

The Sources of the Bryan Fund.

Mr. Bryan holds that it would be greatly to the advantage of many classes of citizens, particularly the farmers of the country, to promote his election; and if these prosperous citizens agree with him, they will easily be able to contribute all the money that may be needed. There are large numbers of wealthy Democrats connected with industrial trusts, street-railroad and gas monopolies, the larger transportation systems, banks and financial institutions, and all sorts of business enterprises. If they desire their party's success, no one can think ill of them for contributing generously. In the election campaign four years ago pretty large sums were collected and expended, but it was impossible to prove that the expenditure of money by national committees had materially affected the results in any locality. The National Republican Committee refused to put any money into Missouri, as a hopeless political situation; yet Missouri gave Roosevelt a plurality of about 30,000 votes over Parker.

Can Votes Be Changed?

This year it is not so much a foregone conclusion as it was four years ago. Doubtless there are many thousands of workingmen whose minds are either not yet made up, or else who are destined to change their minds one way

or the other between now and the first of November. Mr. Gompers was so much absorbed in his tremendous efforts to secure recognition for labor interests in the platforms at Chicago and Denver that it is not strange to find him elated by success in July after relative failure in June; and it must have seemed natural to him that the whole labor vote should recognize what he had sincerely tried to do in its behalf. But the labor vote does not wish to be delivered in one solid block, even by its most highly accredited leader. Many of the prominent men in particular unions hold that the real facts of industry and of statesmanship do not accord with the mere verbiage of party platforms. They see that the Denver platform holds out an olive branch, so to speak, not merely to labor, but to every other element and interest which might feel itself flattered or conciliated by cordial recognition. In short, the labor vote cannot be delivered to any party or candidate. Before this number is in the hands of its readers Mr. Hearst will have returned from Europe and will have held his Independence League convention. Mr. Bryan had made overtures for the support of Mr. Hearst and his newspapers, with the result of sharp rejections that seemed to be final. As this is written, there was some prospect that an independent ticket would be launched by the Hearst party, that would count for some diversion of votes, particularly in the State of New York.



SAYS HE CAN HITCH IT. CAN HE?
(Gompers tries to tie up the Labor vote to "Bryanism and half a loaf.")
From the *Globe* (New York).

The Lesser Parties.

American interest in politics has never been wholly monopolized by the candidates and platforms of the big parties, even in Presidential years. In the current campaign it is not unnatural that more than the usual degree of attention should be given to each of those organizations which is bidding for the rank of "third party" in our national politics. It was only in the election of four years ago that the Socialists took the place long held by the Prohibitionists, with the exception of the campaign of 1892, when the Populists polled a million votes and became for that year the "third party" beyond any question. Both the Prohibition and the Socialist parties have grown during the past four years, and it would be rash to predict which of them will poll the larger aggregate vote in the election of 1908. But there is another organization of whose real strength even less is known, for it never before figured in a Presidential contest. We refer to Mr. Hearst's Independence League, which is said to have some semblance of organization in at least thirty-eight States of the Union and was summoned to meet in a delegate convention at Chicago on July 27 and 28. With candidates for President and Vice-President in the field, how many votes is the League likely to draw from Bryan and Kern? It is assumed on all sides that the Taft support alienated by the Hearst movement will be a negligible quantity. It is Bryan who will suffer.

The Prohibitionist Ticket.

The Republicans, on the other hand, will lose some votes to the Prohibitionists, who last month nominated Eugene W. Chafin, of Illinois, for President, and A. S. Watkins, of Ohio, for Vice-President. Mr. Bryan's loss to the temperance party will be in the form of scattering votes in certain of the Southern States, where the Democratic majorities are out of harm's way. The Prohibitionists, of course, look upon the recent remarkable series of anti-saloon victories in the South and elsewhere as gains to their cause, yet those victories were largely, if not mainly, accomplished by the votes of men who have not allied themselves with the Prohibition party and are as ardent Democrats or Republicans as they ever were. It is impossible for any one to say how many votes have been won for the national ticket by the advance of State prohibition and local option, to a great part of which the third-party Prohibitionists have contributed little or nothing. The defeat in



GOVERNOR PATTERSON, OF TENNESSEE.

the Tennessee primaries on June 27 of ex-Senator Carmack by Governor Patterson was in effect an endorsement of the principle of local option on the liquor question as opposed to "State-wide" prohibition.

Affairs in the States.

Except for the developments of a Presidential campaign, this midsummer would be unusually devoid of incident in the general range of American politics and governmental affairs. The Georgia Legislature remains in session through the hot weather, giving special consideration to the question of redistricting the State. The Louisiana lawmakers adjourned last month after one of the most interesting legislative sessions in the State's recent history. They had passed an anti-race-track gambling bill as far-reaching in its operation and as hotly contested by the gambling interests as was the New York measure so earnestly championed by Governor Hughes. They had also greatly increased the retail liquor license throughout the State, and had enacted a child-labor law forbidding children under fourteen years of age to work in any establishment and limiting the employment of all girls between fourteen and eighteen, and all boys between fourteen and sixteen, to the hours between 6 A.M and 7 P.M. In the North Carolina Democratic Convention Representative William W. Kitchin was named for Governor after a long deadlock. Gov. Malcolm Patterson, of Tennessee, was renominated at the Democratic primaries, after a spirited contest with ex-Senator Carmack. Other nominations equivalent to elections were those of Bert M. Fernalds (Republican), for Governor of Maine, and Lieut.-Gov. George H. Prouty (Republican), for Governor of Vermont. On the last day of June Mr. Hearst's charges of fraudulent miscount in the New York mayoralty election of 1905 were thrown out of court and Mayor McClellan declared elected by a plurality of 2791,—a net gain of 853 for Hearst. Thus a dispute of nearly three years' duration has at last been settled by a recount of the ballots under the provisions of a special law enacted for the purpose by the legislature.

Should Freight Rates Be Increased?

For some months there has been desultory discussion of a general increase of freight rates. In the middle of July the heads of Eastern railroads held a conference in New York to decide whether such a program was feasible, and the question is now being actively debated in the public prints and between the shippers' associations and the freight carriers. The railroads are confronted with losses in gross earnings running for May and June at the rate of about $500,000,000 a year. They despair of borrowing money for necessary renewals, extensions, and improvements on any security less desirable than gilt-edged first-mortgage bonds, and of these there are practically none remaining to offer investors. They point to the fact that while the wages of their employees have increased about 33⅓ per cent. in the past ten years, and the materials of railroading have increased from 50 to 100 per cent. in cost, the rates for carrying freight have remained the same or have decreased. Our two greatest railroad generals, Mr. Hill and Mr. Harriman, are for once in accord in their conviction that freight rates absolutely must be raised, or wages lowered, if the roads are to have the cash or the borrowing power necessary to serve the public properly. Mr. Hill places the annual current requirements of the country's steam transportation lines at $600,000,000. Neither Mr. Hill nor Mr. Harriman advocates the alternative of reducing wages. They do not

think the railroad employee is overpaid, and they believe that the efficient and safe railroad service for which the country is clamoring can only be had by employing good engineers, conductors, and dispatchers, and paying them well. Mr. W. C. Brown, of the New York Central, has given some striking examples of what a 10 per cent. horizontal increase in freight rates would mean in added cost of articles of consumption,—less than one-twentieth of one cent to a suit of underwear, less than one-hundredth of a cent to a $1.50 pair of gloves, 7½ cents to a $50 refrigerator, less than one-tenth of a cent to a pound of butter, a dozen eggs, or a pound of dressed poultry,—these figures being calculated for the haul from the producing locality to the great distributing centers.

The Shippers' Contentions.

The manufacturers' associations representing the shippers are making a determined fight against the proposed increases. They stand on the broad, economic principle that when business is slack, as it is now with the railroads, no good can come from raising prices. They point to their own troubles, with trade throughout the country at 50 per cent. to 60 per cent. of normal, and question their ability to pass on to the consumer higher prices due to increased cost of transportation. The railroad men are themselves by no means unanimous in the opinion that higher rates are expedient. The Eastern conference ended with a more or less vague postponement of the advance from October 1 to December 1. It looks as if rates would be increased, and if they are the Interstate Commerce Commission will at once be besieged with appeals from manufacturers and shippers for decisions to the effect that the new tariffs are unreasonable. It is reported that a majority of the commission are now of the opinion that the proposed action of the railroads will be necessary unless there is this fall a sudden and great increase in transportation business, and therefore in gross earnings.

Confidence Returning.

Even while the railroads are showing such fearful losses in earnings, there is discernible a strong note of returning confidence in business. This was one of the factors in the steady advance of the stock market in the latter part of July, resulting in the highest prices seen since the panic of last October for many important securities. The great steel industry is reported in better shape, with the United States Steel Corporation operating at from 55 to 60 per cent. of its capacity, and prices of cotton goods have regained some of their loss. But concrete evidence, in the way of higher prices for commodities, of returning prosperity is less in evidence than a general hopeful feeling that the country is in the process of righting itself from the bad upset of last fall, and that steadier weather is immediately ahead. To this feeling the very satisfactory crop conditions have largely contributed. Cotton has had excellent weather through July, and will be in good shape to withstand any untoward weather that may come in August and September. The large acreage of corn is in very fair condition. The Kansas wheat crop is being threshed, and the spring wheat of the Dakotas was rescued in the middle of July by copious rains from the drought that was threatening it. To the North the new wheat lands of Canada promise to give an excellent account of themselves in the harvest of 1908.

The Olympic Games.

In all the features of a great athletic meet, save the attendance of spectators in large numbers, the Olympic games held in London last month were successful beyond all precedent in modern times. Representatives of nearly every important nationality were among the competitors, and it has been questioned whether even the original Greek games at Elis had as many contestants as gathered this year in the great Stadium at Shepherd's Bush which a London correspondent described in our last number. Although these pages were closed for the press before the completion of the games, American athletes had already won a sufficient number of events to insure a high place for the United States in the final score. Even if the general victory should not be so sweeping as at Athens two years ago, when the American team won the championship, our athletes at Shepherd's Bush will have the satisfaction of knowing that this year they have had far stronger opposition to contend with, including the athletes of England, Ireland, Scotland, Canada, and Australia. The victories of Melvin W. Sheppard in the 1500-metre race (corresponding to our one-mile run); John J. Flanagan in the hammer throw (establishing a new Olympic record of 170 feet 4½ inches); Ralph Rose, in the shot-put, and Martin Sheridan, in both the free-style and Greek-style discus throws, make America's athletic fame secure for another Olympiad.

The World Looking to Quebec.

At the celebration of the Quebec tercentenary, which began on July 19 and will continue with various exercises throughout the present month, the United States was represented by Vice-President Fairbanks, who went to Quebec on the battleship *New Hampshire,* under the direct command of Rear-Admiral Cowles, representing the American navy. The dedication of the historic battlefields took place on July 24, in the presence of thousands of troops from all parts of the Dominion. Warships of England, the United States, France, Germany, Spain, Italy, Japan, and the Argentine Republic were in the harbor and participated in the ceremonies. In our issue for July we printed an article giving the main features of the program and pointing out the international historic significance of the event. In this issue of the REVIEW, on page 219, we quote what a thoughtful historic writer has to say as to the influence of Quebec upon the development of American history and national life. In the early future we are planning to give our readers another article, showing the economic and industrial progress of French Canada, an advance which has passed comparatively unnoticed amid the constant and lavish attention bestowed upon the marvelous agricultural evolution of the great west of the Dominion. The face of the map of Canada changes rapidly. Long before the Hudson Bay Railway is finished,—and as late as July 8 the Minister of the Interior announced in the Parliament in Ottawa that operations would be begun "without delay,"—the legislation will doubtless be enacted by which the boundaries of the provinces of Quebec, Ontario, and Manitoba will be extended to the shores of Hudson Bay.

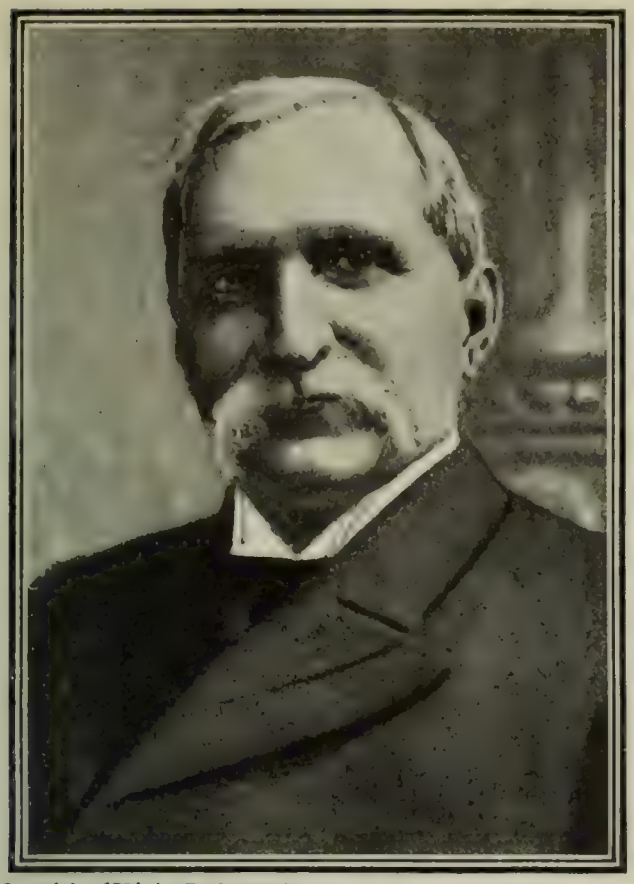


HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS THE PRINCE OF WALES.

(Who last month attended the tercentenary celebrations at Quebec.)

The Revolution in Paraguay.

The peaceful, orderly progress of the South American countries which we chronicled last month has been replaced in the news of the past few weeks from the southern continent by reports of war and revolution. In Paraguay, that little-known country lying almost at the center of the continent, more than 7000 miles from any of our United States ports, there has been a real revolution, resulting in a complete change of government. On June 30 the revolt broke out in Asuncion, the capital city, and after a week of steady fighting in the streets the government troops were defeated, the ministers fled for refuge to the foreign legations, and the city was put under martial law. Dr. Emiliano G. Naveiro, Vice-President under the former chief magistrate (Gen. Benigno Ferreya), was proclaimed President, and a new cabinet, consisting of representatives of the Liberal parties, installed. It is reported that more than 400 were killed and as many wounded in the fight in the streets of Asuncion. The Argentine Government at once sent gunboats up the river to the Paraguayan capital, ostensibly to insure the safety of the foreign legations. It is reported on good authority, however, that Argentina has been secretly aiding the government forces against the revolutionists, while Brazil is reported to have sympathized with the latter. This may cause



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PRESIDENT OBALDIA OF PANAMA.

some friction between Argentina and Brazil, two governments which have not in recent years been very friendly one to the other. By the middle of July, our Minister at Uruguay and Paraguay, Mr. Edward C. O'Brien, declared the situation had cleared and the new government was fast securing the adherence and recognition of the country.

An Insurrection in Mexico.

War and rumors of war made up the news quite generally from other important and extensive areas of Latin-America last month. While our neighboring republic, Mexico, may be said to be quite peaceful and satisfied under the progressive if somewhat arbitrary rule of President Porfirio Diaz, occasional revolutionary outbreaks during the past three or four years, particularly in the states bordering on our own country, call attention to the activities of a Mexican revolutionary junta with headquarters in St. Louis and branches in several Texas cities. Just what these rebellions against the Diaz rule are intended to secure it is not easy to ascertain. The latest revolutionary manifestation took place in the latter part of June in the provinces of Coahuila, Chihuahua, and Durango. Revolutionary forces attacked several small towns near the Texas line, released all the jail prisoners, and robbed the banks and post-offices. The Mexican Government denounced these marauders as bandits, and at once sent a large force of Rurales to chastise them. A number of the revolutionists were killed and many more captured near the town of Las Vacas, and 1000 guns secreted by them were found in a cave. Some bitter feeling existed among the local Mexican authorities, who claim that encouragement was given to the insurgents by citizens of Texas. It was even rumored that the Mexican Government would ask the United States to punish local authorities in certain Texas towns for permitting the insurgents to arm and equip on Texan territory and retire there when pursued by the Rurales. Later, however, Señor Mariscal, of the Mexican Foreign Department, made a public announcement expressing entire confidence in the friendly and sincere attitude of the United States Government and thanking our State Department for moving troops to the boundary to assist in restoring order.

The New President of Panama.

By resigning his position as Secretary of Foreign Relations of Panama and publicly withdrawing from the contest for the presidency, Señor Ricardo Arias assured the election of his rival, Señor José Obaldia, candidate of the opposition to the government. This withdrawal, the candidate declared, was dictated by "a patriotic desire to prevent the military occupation of the republic by the United States and to enable the re-establishment of a union of political parties." In the election, which was held on July 12, the Arias supporters generally abstained from voting, and the ballots cast were almost unanimously for Señor Obaldia. On the 1st of the present month the electors meet in the capitals of the seven provinces and cast their official votes for the new President. The national assembly meets on September 1. The people of Panama are celebrating the Obaldia victory, claiming that it is the first time in the history of Latin-American countries that the official candidate for the presidency has been defeated by the people's choice.

Affairs in Cuba and Central America.

It has been officially announced that on September 1 the provincial and municipal elections will be held in Cuba for governors of provinces, provincial councilmen, alcaldes, and councilmen. The presidential election will follow on December 1, and the inauguration of Pres-

ident two months later. A noteworthy event in Cuban history during July was the arrival in Havana Harbor of the Spanish training ship *Nautilus*, the first Spanish national vessel to come to Cuba since the Spanish-American War. The *Nautilus* received a hearty welcome, not only from the Spanish residents of Havana, but from the native Cubans as well. A small revolt in Honduras during early July, in which it was at first believed Salvador and Guatemala were implicated, thus threatening to precipitate another general Central American war, was put down by the government troops after a few days of fighting. While there is undoubtedly a good deal of unrest throughout Central America, there can be no doubt of the completeness of the understanding between Mexico and the United States and their agreement to exert vigorous pressure (when friendly offices prove ineffective) upon these turbulent republics in the interest of a real and permanent peace. On July 17 the gunboat *Marietta* was sent to Puerto Cortez, the Honduran port, to be ready in case of an outbreak of actual war.

More Trouble for Venezuela.

By the withdrawal from Caracas of Mr. Jacob Sleeper, who had been American Chargé d'Affaires in Venezuela since Minister Russell returned to this country some weeks ago, the relations between President Castro's government and the United States entered on a new stage. When, however, on July 9, Señor N. Veloz Goiticoa, Chargé d'Affaires of the Venezuelan Legation in Washington, received instructions from President Castro to return home immediately, diplomatic relations between the two countries were actually severed. It is understood that the State Department's action in recalling Mr. Sleeper was due in general to President Castro's unwillingness concerning claims pending against him by American corporations and citizens, and to a further conviction that it would be unwise to risk the lives and health of our diplomatic representatives in a plague-stricken region. The disease, according to latest reports, has not decreased, although officially it was stamped out several weeks ago. The publication of the official correspondence between Mr. Sleeper and Dr. Paul, Venezuelan Minister of Foreign Affairs, also indicates that Castro's Foreign Office declined to guarantee the protection of the American Legation. The Venezuelan President has more trouble with Europe facing him, and the arrival of two Dutch men-of-war in the harbor of La Guayra, late in June, to remove the Dutch Minister, was taken to indicate the intention of The Hague government to press the claims of its citizens with vigor. Great damage has been done to Venezuelan commerce by the plague, almost all the ports with which the commerce of that country is generally carried on having declared a strict quarantine against ships from Venezuela.

The English Suffragettes.

Besides the so-called Daylight-Saving law referred to on another page, the British capital and England generally have been interested during the past few weeks in new riotous demonstrations of the so-called Suffragettes, the dispute in high naval circles between Admiral Charles Beresford and Rear-Admiral Sir Percy Scott, the sessions of the Pan-Anglican Congress, the events of the Olympic games in the stadium at the Franco-British Exposition, the effect of the new British Patent law, which requires that foreigners holding British patents must manufacture the patented goods in Great Britain, and the modifications made by Parliament in the old-age pension scheme of the government. A monster demonstration of Suffragettes took place in the London streets on July 1. The women besieged the House of Commons, and 5000 policemen were needed to prevent their invading Parliament House. The occasion was the declaration by Premier Asquith that the women of Great Britain had shown no great desire for the suffrage. This was the reply. The Premier refused, however, to see a delegation of leaders headed by Mrs. Pankhurst. Some scenes of disorder characterized the demonstration, including the breaking of the windows of Mr. Asquith's official residence, for which offense some twenty women were imprisoned. It is evident that the Suffragettes are in earnest, and however one may regard the justice or propriety of their contentions it must be admitted that in their campaigns in England during the past two or three years, they have displayed considerable energy, perseverance, and political sagacity.

Other English Topics of Interest.

The friction in the navy, although causing a great deal of discussion in England, is apparently not of a serious nature, and is generally regarded as merely a movement to bring about the downfall of Admiral Beres-

ford, who has many personal enemies. The Pan-Anglican Congress, which is the international deliberative body of the Episcopal Church, met in Albert Hall, London, during the last week in June. It is a significant fact that at the "sociological session" all the speakers except one displayed a decided socialistic tendency. One hundred and fifty archbishops and bishops, a multitude of minor clergy, and a large assemblage of laymen and laywomen attended this congress. The Old-Age Pension bill passed its third reading in the House of Commons on July 9. In the upper house a number of modifications were made. Its fate will probably be decided early in the autumn session of the Parliament. The Lords are opposed to it in principle and form.

France Buys Another Railroad.

Premier Clémenceau's narrow majority on the vote taken on the question of the purchase by the state of the Western Railway probably hastened the adjournment of the Parliament. The summer session was closed on July 13, leaving over until the autumn session the final disposition of the government's measures for an income tax, old-age pensions, and the restoration of the death penalty. The government has committed itself to the enactment of these measures into law, but is proceeding with great caution in order not to go more rapidly than public opinion. To all of these measures there is very strong and in some cases organized opposition. By the purchase of the Western Railway the republic becomes owner of one-fifth of the railway mileage within its borders. This particular system, comprising 3100 miles of track, had been operated so inefficiently, and so much corruption had been evident in its management, that the Premier, taking advantage of the authority vested in the government by law to purchase railroads, carried the measure, though with difficulty, through both houses of Parliament. M. Clémenceau denied that the ministry or he himself are partisans of state ownership. He maintains, however, that in self-defense and for the public good a mismanaged public utility such as the Western Railway must be taken over by the state. It is believed that the Premier will use the fact of this purchase to compel the other non-state railways to adopt methods of working similar to those used by the state-owned lines. "Security against abuses" is the Premier's watchword in the railroad problem.

The Campaign Against Absinthe.

Another question of much greater social and economic import than the railway problem has reached a critical stage in public consideration in France. Late in June a bill was introduced in the Chamber of Deputies making the sale of absinthe a penal offense throughout the republic. This bill bears the endorsement of thousands of prominent Frenchmen of all professions,—military and naval men, lawyers, manufacturers, as well as physicians and moralists. It is interesting to note that a few days after the introduction of this bill in the French Parliament announcement was made in Switzerland that the national referendum on the question of prohibiting the manufacture and sale of absinthe had resulted in a majority of more than 80,000 in favor of the prohibition.

Portuguese and Spanish Topics of Interest.

While the Portuguese Cortes and the chief politicians of the country are still disputing, and many of them fighting duels, over ex-Premier Franco's indiscretion in making large advances of money on the civil list of the royal family, and the salaries of government officials, the Portuguese people have been celebrating with enthusiasm the hundredth anniversary of the Oporto uprising against the French. The birth of a second son to the Spanish royal pair has recalled the attention of the world to that interesting Iberian country. The new royal baby, who was born on June 22, was christened Jaime Leopoldo Alejandro Isabelino Enrique Alberto Alfonso Victor Juan Pedro Pablo Maria. Americans will be interested also to learn that General Weyler, formerly Spanish Captain-General of Cuba, has at last finished his voluminous memoirs of the Cuban war. The book, it is expected, will be published before the end of the present year, and the Spanish journals are predicting that it will make some sensational disclosures.

Progress in Russia.

Immediately after the summer adjournment of the Russian Duma, on July 11, Dr. Komiakov, the president, was received in audience by the Czar. The monarch expressed satisfaction with Parliament's work, even approving the rejection by the Duma of the government's naval scheme, saying that the people's representatives were right in demanding a complete program before passing the budget. His Majesty sympathized with Parliament's championship of the university stu-

dents and declared himself as on the whole satisfied with the way the third Duma has conducted the public business. Just before adjourning the Duma passed the bill authorizing the expenditure of $46,000,000 for the war budget, sanctioning, also, tentatively, the department's program for the expenditure of a further $100,000,000 next year. The items included in the purpose of this bill are the construction of fortifications of Vladivostok and the building of the Amur Railway. On the whole, despite the assertions of competent observers that the internal administration of the empire is still very bad, and despite the high average of executions, the western world is disposed to agree with Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Minister, when, in reply to some criticism of King Edward's recent visit to the Czar, he declared in Parliament:



THE RUSSIAN ROYAL FAMILY AT REVAL.

(Landing from the yacht *Standart* on the occasion of the visit of the King and Queen of England to Russia, late in June.)

> Is the system of government in Russia getting better or is it getting worse? I say, with full knowledge of the reports which we have been receiving for the last two years, that the system of government has been getting emphatically better. And the evidence is there. There is a Duma in Russia to-day. The complaint is that it is not elected on a democratic franchise. How long has this House been elected on a democratic franchise? Within my lifetime the change has come to what we should now call a democratic franchise. Are there no other countries in Europe of high standing whose Parliaments are not elected on a democratic franchise? You can easily find other instances. Three years ago in Russia there was no Duma, constitution, or Parliament of this kind. There is to-day a Duma which, even if it be not on a democratic franchise, criticises the government, votes money, and sometimes refuses to vote money, and is composed of different parties, some of them advanced parties, and many opposed to the government.

The Fleet and Australia.

When Rear-Admiral Sperry's fleet anchors in the fine harbor of Auckland, New Zealand, on August 9, it will have begun its homeward voyage very appropriately by making the first port of call among the English-speaking peoples. The entertainment of our sailormen by the New Zealand port and their reception later by the Australian cities of Sydney and Melbourne will direct the attention of Americans to Britain's vast possessions in the South Pacific and the progress which has been made during the past decade by the people of our own speech in the Southern Hemisphere. Next month we hope to publish a brief article pointing out the claims of Australia and New Zealand upon the interest of the world, and in one of our "Leading Articles" in this issue we describe Sydney's recent progress in commerce and wealth. The fleet left San Francisco on July 7, according to schedule, and arrived on time at Honolulu on July 16. After their welcome at Sydney the ships will proceed to Melbourne, the capital of the commonwealth. The official functions there will include a dinner to the senior officers of the fleet on August 29 by Governor Carmichael, of Victoria; a dinner in Parliament House by the Commonwealth government on August 30, and a reception to the admirals and officers of the visiting fleet by the state government in the exhibition building on September 2. From Australian waters the ships go to Japan.

Change of Ministry in Japan.

In recording the results of the Japanese elections of May 15 this magazine announced the narrow victory of Premier Saionji, but expressed a doubt as to his continuance at the head of the ministry. The election, as a matter of fact, gave the Saionji cabinet but a very brief

renewal of life,—only two months. On July 14 the names of the reorganized body were announced as follows

Premier—Marquis Katsura, combining also the duties of Minister of Finance.
Secretary of Home Affairs—Baron Hirata.
Foreign Secretary—Count Komura, now Ambassador to England. Until Count Komura's return Viscount Terauchi will act in his stead.
Department of Justice—Viscount Okabe.
Department of Education—Mr. Komatsubara.
Communications—Baron Goto, president of the South Manchurian Railway.
Agriculture and Commerce—Baron Oura.

The heads of the war and navy departments will not be changed. General Terauchi retains the war portfolio. The changes in the ministry are really a matter of individuals, not of policies. The Seiyukai, or National party, has really been strengthened before the country, and Marquis Katsura's return to power must be taken as a personal vindication of that statesman rather than as a change in principle. Katsura was Premier during the war with Russia.

The Issues Before the Ministers.

The questions of finance, retrenchment in armaments, and emigration will continue to furnish the most pressing problems before the Tokio government. Katsura's return to office is really a triumph of the aged Marquis Yamagata, whose ideas and policies dictated the course of the Russo-Japanese War. Although, as intimated, the problem of retrenchment in military expenses will press for settlement, it does not seem likely, in view of Katsura's elevation to the head of the cabinet, that there will be any change in the military policy of the government. Indeed, Katsura is a much more energetic pro-militarist than Saionji, although he has publicly declared himself in favor of retrenchment. It will be interesting to note the development of Japanese politics during the next few months as the new Premier discloses his policy with regard to army extension. The business interests of the empire and the great masses of the people will probably have to bear an increased burden of taxation, although they are now taxed to the breaking point. A significant announcement was made early in July by the Japanese Chargé d'Affaires at Peking. He was instructed by his government to notify the Chinese authorities that Japan will not oppose the development of Chinese territory in Manchuria. On the contrary, she will assist in that work and offer no objection to railroad construction.



VISCOUNT TARO KATSURA.

(Who has been chosen for a second time as Premier of Japan.)

History-Making in Persia.

Exactly what has happened in Persia the outside world does not know. Conflicting reports of alternate progressive and reactionary triumphs, however, agree in these main points: Ever since two years ago, when the present Shah, who is a rather weak and irresolute man, granted the people a Parliament (called by



"HOW CAN JAPAN HELP BEING NARROW-MINDED?"

(When she is being squeezed between Uncle Sam and John Chinaman.)

From the *Japan Current* (Seattle).

the Persians a Mejliss), there have been differences of opinion as to how far the power of this body extended. Successive changes of ministry have followed rapidly, the Parliament charging the ministers with using arbitrary power. Finally some months ago a list of alleged breaches of the constitution was drawn up and the Shah asked to correct them in order to restore public confidence. The monarch, however, declared that he was the friend of the constitution, and charged the leaders of Parliament with conspiring against the throne. It seems that the great majority of the people, led by the priests, are with the Mejliss and against the throne. The monarch, however, has organized a strong body of cossacks, commanded by Russian officers and (it is intimated) directed and paid for from St. Petersburg.

Attack on the New Parliament.

Late in June the Shah sent troops to the Parliament House to arrest certain alleged conspirators. Parliament refused to surrender these, and a battle ensued, resulting finally in the destruction of the Parliament House by cossacks and the loss of nearly 2000 lives. The Shah then dissolved Parliament, and at latest reports quiet reigned in Teheran, the capital, although there was further rioting at Tabriz and other cities. The separation of Persia into Russian and British spheres of influence has been recognized ever since the Anglo-Russian agreement. Considerable restiveness, however, has become evident in British diplomatic circles and in the Parliament at Westminster itself over what British Liberals are calling Russian bad faith in the Persian Shah's conflict with his people. Whether or not, as is reported, King Edward and the Czar discussed the Persian matter at their recent Reval meeting, it would appear that the governments of St. Petersburg and London are in complete understanding in the matter. And yet this does not prevent popular sympathy in Great Britain from being entirely with the Persian revolutionists.

Progress in Navigating the Air.

The conquest of the air goes on apace. During the past two or three months there have been more successful experiments in aerial navigation, probably, than in the world's entire history before that time. These triumphs have been made by all of the three principal forms of air-navigating machines,—the aeroplane, or flying-machine proper; the dirigible balloon, and the airship, which is to a certain extent a combination of the other two models. The aeroplane of Henri Farman, the French aeronaut, who is now in this country, made a record in the south of France on July 6 by flying for more than eleven miles, at a height of twenty-two feet above the earth, remaining in the air for more than twenty minutes. There has been a number of noteworthy achievements with the dirigible balloon, the form which is now being experimented with by the war departments of America and a number of European countries. On July 4 an interesting test race of these craft started from Chicago. The Fielding-San Antonio balloon, after twenty-four hours in the air in variable winds, landed at West Shefford, Quebec, having covered in that time a distance of 825 miles.

The Triumph of Count Zeppelin.

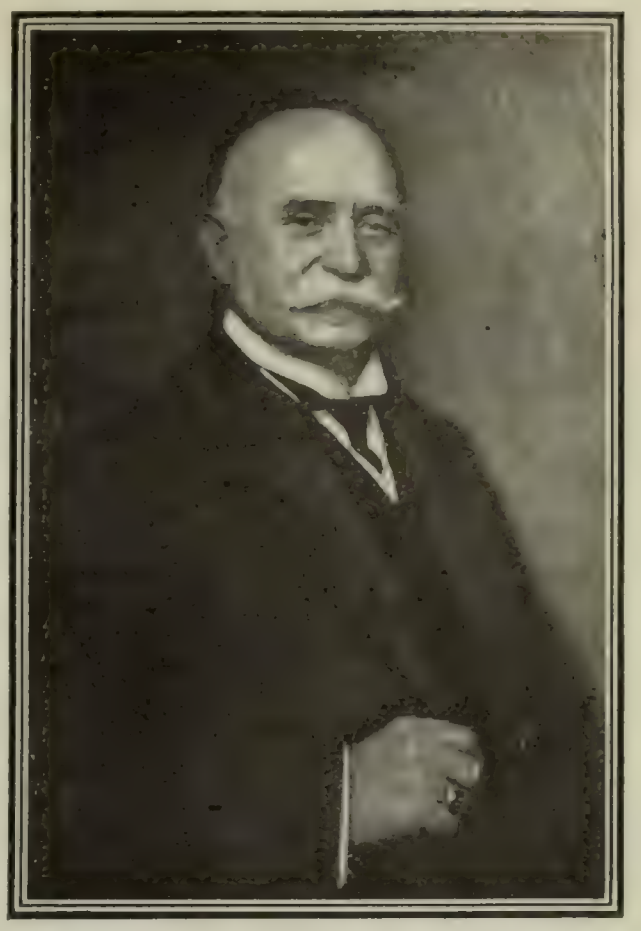
Count Ferdinand von Zeppelin, however, the German aeronaut, with his airship has secured the supremacy in the actual mastery of the air. On July 1 this great air vessel (a cigar-shaped craft over 400 feet long and 49 feet at its greatest width) left its "garage" at Friedrichshafen on the German shore of Lake Constance and immediately rose to a



THE INTEGRITY OF PERSIA (A GERMAN VIEW).

(How much of independence and sovereignty will remain when the Russian cossack gets through with the Persian people?—From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

height of 1000 feet, attaining later a maximum height of over 2500 feet. It sailed over the lake, then turned into Switzerland, crossed four of the cantons, performed certain evolutions at the command of its steersman over the city of Lucerne, circumnavigated above Lake Lucerne, and then retraced its course to Lake Constance, returning and gliding into its shed without a jar. The voyage, which was under the personal conduct of Count von Zeppelin himself, lasted over twelve hours and covered a total distance of more than 250 miles. Besides the master, the balloon had as passengers the King and Queen of Wirtemberg, and a crew of fourteen men. Count Zeppelin's success has set the governments of the world to thinking what might happen with a machine like this in case of war. Diplomacy has already begun to give itself a great deal of concern over aerial navigation. Indeed, it is announced from London that the British War Office and Admiralty are convinced that Zeppelin's triumph has "actually threatened England's inviolability." The fact that Count Zeppelin is a German, that the Berlin government appropriated $100,000 to pay the expenses of his experiments, and that Kaiser Wilhelm sent the aeronaut an enthusiastic personal telegram complimenting him on his triumph has not added to the sense of security in the British mind.



COUNT FERDINAND ZEPPELIN.

(Who has made a noteworthy voyage in his vast airship, remaining aloft for more than twelve hours.)

Saving Daylight by Act of Parliament.

That the ordinary working-day during the summer in Great Britain is at least an hour late seems to be the almost unanimous opinion of Englishmen, and to remedy this there is under consideration by Parliament a "Daylight Saving" bill, which has already been unanimously approved by the special committee appointed to consider it. This bill, which was introduced last February, has provoked much discussion in both business and scientific circles, as it aims to alter the habits of the people by a change of the time-standard during the summer months. It provides for setting forward the clocks throughout the kingdom by twenty minutes on each of the four Sundays in April, and then back again a corresponding amount on each of the four Sundays in September, the effect being a gain of eighty minutes for the clock over the sun during the summer months. In this way it is claimed that the hours of business would be better accommodated to the hours of sunlight and there would be a great saving in daylight, in addition of course to the saving in the expense of artificial illumination. The idea, in short, is to have offices now opening at 10 o'clock open at 8.40, but so to change the clocks that the usual time would be indicated. The advocates of the measure call attention to the great hygienic benefits to be gained by working in the earlier hours of the day, and the more even distribution of sunlight over the woking-day, as well as the increased economy in gas and electricity. Of course no change in the hours of labor so far as the length of a working-day is involved, but the innovation is so radical that it has aroused expressions of opinion from all classes of society, especially the electric-light and gas companies.

Some of the Benefits.

The step seems one to be taken rather by social action than by legislation, and the argument is advanced that the bill is in the interest of the city workers, such as clerks, rather than for the more strenuous toilers, such as farm laborers, factory employees, dock and railway hands, who from necessity if not from choice are compelled to use the early hours of the morning at present, if not in actual work

at least in going to or preparing for it. The natural reply to the reformers, of course, is that the British should follow the example of Continental Europe and India and adjust their business and social affairs with due regard to the sun. Accordingly, Sir David Gill, the celebrated astronomer, suggests that, instead of changing the time, the people of their own will change their habits, and that a beginning be made by having the Bank of England open at 9 A. M. from April 1 to the end of September, instead of at 10, as is customary. Such an example of necessity would be followed by the business establishments of the city and would soon be taken up by manufacturers and other employers throughout the country.

And Some Objections.

As opposing such a progressive step there is the somewhat unique spectacle of British scientists, especially the astronomers, rallying in defense of the present standard time and calendar and condemning any disturbance of standard time either in general or in its use by Great Britain. For it must be remembered that the standard time for the entire world is based upon the meridian of Greenwich, and most civilized countries employ time which differs from that of Greenwich by an even hour. England takes great pride in being the source of universal time, and consequently any attack on the integrity or the principle of standard time, which for the facilitating of all forms of business is a demonstrated success, would come with a peculiarly bad grace from England. To-day the time of a cablegram, no matter from how distant a point it is transmitted, can be understood immediately, and a man may traverse the world over without changing the minute hand of his watch. Sir David Gill writes that "If the new so-called 'British time' proposed by the bill is introduced, this world-wide agreement will be upset and the intercommunication of the world will be thrown into confusion."

International Work of the Y. M. C. A.

A great deal of credit and respect is due the Young Men's Christian Association for its effective work in the cause of public morality and progress the world over. The young American especially in all parts of the globe is its care. Anticipating the opportunities for disorder and license when the American fleet reaches Yokahoma in October, the associations of that port and of Tokio have been circulating a petition against allowing Geisha dances and saké or other strong drink at the entertainments for the men. The idea has already received hearty endorsement from several influential Japanese and Americans, and it now seems probable that the imperial authorities will heed the petition and issue the necessary regulations.

Studying and Aiding the Immigrant.

In the interest of the immigrants, also, the Y. M. C. A. has exerted itself nobly. The problem of the immigrant has become especially acute in the State of Pennsylvania, where so many ignorant foreigners work in the mines and factories. In a large degree they have remained isolated from the rest of the population and have seen only the worst phases of American political and social life. The Pennsylvania Y. M. C. A., realizing the magnitude of the task, has had a special commission at work to study this subject. Investigations were made by Dr. Peter Roberts, who has an expert knowledge of conditions in the mining regions of the State. Some months ago it was decided that Dr. Edward A. Steiner, who has an intimate acquaintance with the immigrants of every race, should head an expedition of American young men to study the problem abroad, to get a viewpoint of the immigrant, to know something about his history, and above all to study as far as possible his language. Dr. Steiner sailed early in June as the director of this expedition. The men are now traveling, chiefly afoot, through the whole immigrant territory, living among the peasants and trying to keep themselves in touch with the people who make up such a large portion of the population of Pennsylvania. The young men will be gone a year, and upon their return they will take up social work among the immigrants and endeavor to bring them in touch with the best there is in American social and religious life. Considering the many outgivings on the immigration "problem," it is a singular fact that this is practically the first definite effort to meet the situation fairly and cope with it in a reasonable and scientific spirit.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From June 21 to July 20, 1908.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

June 23.—Georgia Democrats select uninstructed delegates to Denver and nominate Joseph M. Brown for Governor, ratifying the primaries of June 4....The Louisiana Senate, by a vote of 21 to 19, passes the Locke Anti-Racing bill prohibiting all forms of race gambling, the bill having already been passed by the lower house.

June 25.—Iowa Democrats ratify the nomination of Fred E. White, the primary candidate for Governor.

June 27.—In the Tennessee Democratic primaries, Gov. Malcolm R. Patterson defeats ex-United States Senator E. W. Carmack for the nomination to the governorship by a majority of 7500; Governor Patterson represents local option and ex-Senator Carmack State-wide prohibition.

June 29.—North Carolina Democrats nominate Congressman William Walton Kitchin for Governor and instruct their delegates to Denver for William J. Bryan....The Louisiana Assembly passes the Shattuck-Gay bill for a higher license.

June 30.—A jury in the New York Supreme Court, by direction of the court, throws out William R. Hearst's charges of fraudulent miscount in the mayoralty election of 1905 and declares McClellan elected by a plurality of 2791, being a net gain of 863 for Hearst....The close of the fiscal year finds a deficit in the United States Treasury of approximately $60,000,000 compared with a surplus one year ago of more than $84,000,000....William H. Taft completes his last day's service as Secretary of War....The appointment of W. Cameron Forbes to be vice-governor of the Philippine Islands is announced at Washington....Maine Republicans nominate Bert M. Fernalds for Governor.

July 1.—Montana Democrats instruct their Denver delegation for Bryan....Gen. Luke E. Wright takes the oath of office as Secretary of War, succeeding William H. Taft....Vermont Republicans nominate Lieut.-Gov. George A. Prouty for Governor.

July 2.—President Roosevelt appoints Col. William L. Marshall chief of engineers of the army.

July 6.—President Roosevelt appoints Milton D. Purdy United States district judge to succeed Judge Lochren, of Minnesota.

July 7.—The Democratic National Convention meets at Denver and adopts resolutions of respect to the memory of Grover Cleveland....President Roosevelt directs an inquiry into the protest of New England manufacturers that they are discriminated against in the purchase of khaki uniforms for the army.

July 8.—In the Democratic National Convention at Denver a demonstration lasting an hour and twenty-eight minutes follows the mention of W. J. Bryan's name....The Executive Committee of the Republican National Committee elects Frank H. Hitchcock chairman, George R. Sheldon treasurer, and Arthur I. Vorys manager of the Ohio campaign.

July 10.—William J. Bryan, of Nebraska, and John W. Kern, of Indiana, are nominated for President and Vice-President by the National Democratic Convention at Denver.

July 14.—The Democratic National Committee adopts a campaign-fund publicity plan suggested by the candidates.

July 15.—Maine Democrats nominate Obadiah Gardiner for Governor.

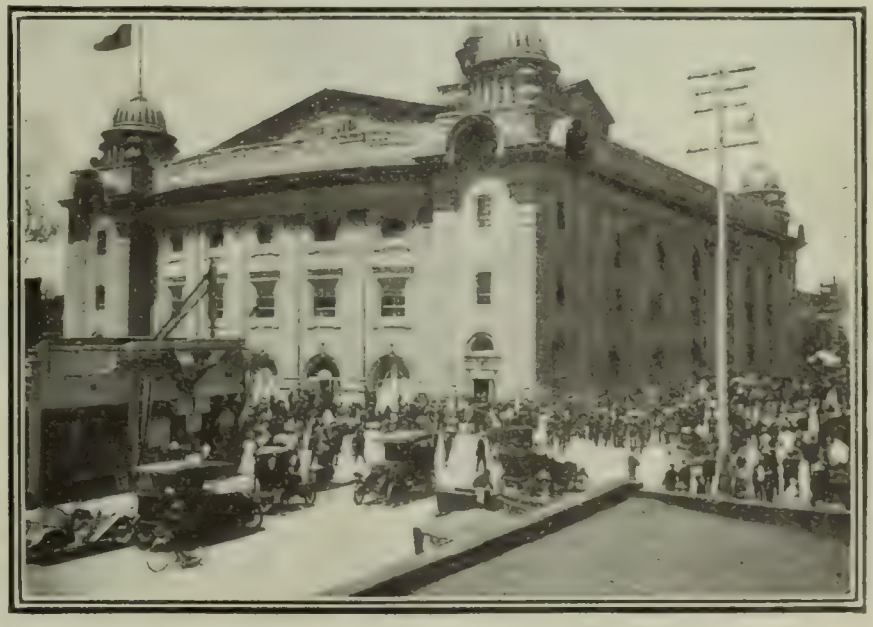
July 16.—The Prohibitionist National Convention at Columbus, Ohio, nominates Eugene W. Chafin, of Illinois, for President, and A. S. Watkins, of Ohio, for Vice-President.

July 18.—Candidate Taft declares that the Republican National Committee will not accept campaign contributions from corporations.

July 20.—The national monetary commission meets at Narragansett Pier, R. I.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

June 21.—A great demonstration for woman suffrage is held in Hyde Park, London....Nineteen persons are sentenced to death by court-martial in various parts of Russia.



THE AUDITORIUM AT DENVER WHILE THE DEMOCRATIC NATIONAL CONVENTION WAS IN SESSION.

June 23.—A resolution in favor of the union of South Africa is carried in the Transvaal Legislative Assembly.

June 24.—A heated debate on Congo affairs takes place in the Belgian Parliament....The Russian Senate decides that the members of the Constitutional Democrats and other unrecognized parties cannot hold offices in the zemstvos or municipal councils.

June 26.—The French Senate, by a vote of 155 to 118, passes the bill to buy and operate the Western Railway....The Shah of Persia issues a proclamation declaring martial law....A congress on the civil rights and the suffrage for women is opened in Paris....The new session of both houses of the Prussian Diet is opened.

June 27.—The Shah of Persia issues a rescript dissolving Parliament....The Council of the Russian Empire, by a large majority, votes the four battleships refused by the Duma.

June 28.—Municipal elections in Panama and Colon result in a victory for the partisans of General Obaldia....A mass-meeting of Republicans in Lisbon demands a vigorous investigation of the advances of money to the royal family and the alleged misuse of public funds in the reign of King Carlos.

June 30.—The Russian Duma votes $46,000,000 for military needs and tentatively approves another loan of $100,000,00 for the period of 1909-'11.

July 1.—Gen. Ramon Caceres takes the oath of office as President of Santo Domingo.

July 4.—Ricardo Arias, the Constitutionalist leader in Panama, resigns as a candidate for the presidency....The Russian ministry decides to present in the Duma a bill providing for workingmen's insurance....The Japanese cabinet formally resigns.

July 5.—The Paraguayan revolutionists, having overthrown the government, appoint Dr. Emiliano Gonzale Naveiro President.

July 11.—The Russian Duma adjourns.

July 12.—Señor José Domingo Obaldia is elected President of Panama by a large vote.... The Emperor of Japan summons Count Katsura to discuss the formation of a new cabinet.

July 13.—The French Parliament adjourns, leaving the bills for an income tax, old-age pensions, and the restoration of the death penalty until the next session.

July 14.—A hundred persons are arrested in Russian Poland in a plot against the life of Czar Nicholas.

July 18.—Gen. Osman Pacha, Turkish commander at Monastir, is assassinated by an officer connected with the "Young Turkey" movement.

July 19.—The King of Servia provides for the formation of a coalition ministry.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

June 21.—The European powers agree to send a warship to Tangier to protect the lives and property of foreigners.

June 23.—Because of the failure of the United States to obtain satisfaction from President Castro of various claims, the Secretary of the American Legation in Venezuela leaves Caracas, where there is now no American diplomatic representative....Japan withdraws opposition to the construction of the Hsin-Min-Tun & Fakomen Railway, and promises to aid China in the development of Manchuria.

June 24.—The schoolship *Nautilus*, the first Spanish war vessel to visit Havana since the Spanish-American War, arrives in that harbor and is warmly welcomed.

June 29.—The United States War Department orders troops to the Mexican border to preserve order and prevent any violation of the neutrality laws.

June 30.—The British Foreign Office refuses to surrender to the Persian authorities the refugees at the legation at Teheran and protests to the Shah of Persia against the stationing of troops near its building.

July 5.—Dutch colonists petition their home government that steps be taken to bring about improved relations with Venezuela.

July 8.—Nicaraguan troops are ordered to aid the Honduran Government to put down rebellion.

July 9.—The Venezuelan Chargé d'Affaires in Washington is recalled by President Castro, thus completely severing diplomatic relations between the United States and Venezuela.

July 11.—Honduras and Nicaragua institute suits before the Central American Court of Justice against Salvador and Guatemala, charging the defendant countries with promoting the revolution in Honduras and aiding Nicaraguan refugees.

July 18.—President Fallières, of France, starts on a trip to Denmark, Russia, Sweden, and Norway.

July 19.—China appoints the Governor of Mukden province to visit the United States and thank the Government for the restoration of part of the Boxer indemnity.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

June 21.—A bomb is thrown into a train at a station near Calcutta, India; three persons are severely injured....Four new cases of plague are reported at Port-of-Spain.

June 22.—Floods in China cause great destruction of crops....Leon Delagrange, the French aeronaut, makes an aeroplane record by flying a distance of eighteen kilometers (a little more than eleven miles) in sixteen and one-half minutes....Fire destroys a great part of the business section of Three Rivers, Quebec; the loss is estimated at over $1,000,000....A second son is born to King Alfonso of Spain....The torpedo laboratory at the Newport, R. I., naval training station is destroyed by an explosion of chemicals....Twenty-four members of the manila paper combination are fined $2000 each for violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust law.

June 23.—The Sir Leoline Jenkins Science Laboratories at Oxford, England, are opened.... Mr. Clark-Kennedy, an Englishman, is captured by Moors and a ransom is demanded.... The Spanish steamship *Larache* is sunk off Ximiela; thirty-five persons are lost.

June 24.—A thanksgiving service is held in St. Paul's Cathedral, London, in connection with the Pan-Anglican Congress; the thank-offering fund amounts to $1,666,040....The new French

steerable war balloon *Republique* makes a successful ascent near Nantes.

June 20.—The funeral of ex-President Grover Cleveland is held at Princeton, N. J....Fifteen persons are killed and 270 injured in a collision of trains on the Bombay & Baroda Railway, India....In the race for schooners at Kiel, Germany, the *Hamburg* wins, the *Meteor*, with Emperor William at the helm, being second....A monument in memory of the late Senator Hoar is unveiled at Worcester, Mass.

June 27.—The business quarter of Frederikstad, Norway, is destroyed by fire.

June 28.—In a wreck of the Winnipeg express of the Canadian Pacific line in Ontario, Canada, seventeen persons are hurt, two fatally....A bomb explosion in Barcelona kills a policeman. ....The ninth biennial convention of the General Federation of Women's Clubs meets in Boston.

June 29.—Count Zeppelin's airship, in a flight over Lake Constance, remains in the air six hours and forty-five minutes at an average speed of thirty-four and one-half miles an hour.... The balloon *Cognac*, owned by the Swiss Aero Club, succeeds in crossing the Alps....The National Educational Association begins its annual convention at Cleveland....Plans for a sixty-two story building in New York City are filed by the Equitable Life Assurance Society.

June 30.—Mrs. Phillip N. Moore, of St. Louis, is elected president of the General Federation of Women's Clubs....The International Council of Congregational Churches meets in Edinburgh.

July 1.—Count Zeppelin breaks the world's record for airship flight, remaining in the air twelve hours, at an average speed of thirty-four miles....A receiver is appointed for the Norfolk & Southern Railroad on petition of the Trust Company of America joined by the railroad....The death sentence of Harry Orchard for complicity in the murder of ex-Governor Steunenberg, of Idaho, is commuted to life imprisonment.

July 2.—About 300 miners are killed as the result of a gas explosion in the Rikovski mine, Russia....The *Russ*, at one time the leading Liberal newspaper of Russia, suspends publication because of financial difficulties.

July 3.—A mine explosion at Las Esperanzas, Mexico, imprisons twenty men....Fire following an explosion of fireworks in a Cleveland store causes the death of seven persons.

July 5.—One-third of the city of Port-au-Prince, Haiti, is destroyed by fire.

July 6.—Nearly 50,000 mill employees in the Pittsburg district return to work....Henri Farman's aeroplane wins the prize of $2000 offered by M. Armengaud for a trip lasting fifteen minutes....A papal document is issued making important changes in the government of the Roman church....The United Mine Workers of America call a strike of all union miners in Alabama. ....Nine deaths are recorded from the heat in New York City....Commander Peary's Arctic ship, the *Roosevelt*, starts on a North Pole expedition.

July 7.—German cars win the first three places in the automobile race for the Grand Prix at Dieppe....Fifteen battleships of the Atlantic fleet sail from San Francisco for Honolulu on the trip around the world; the *Nebraska* is detained at Quarantine by an outbreak of scarlet fever on board.

July 8.—Fire on the water front of East Boston causes a loss estimated at more than $3,000,000.

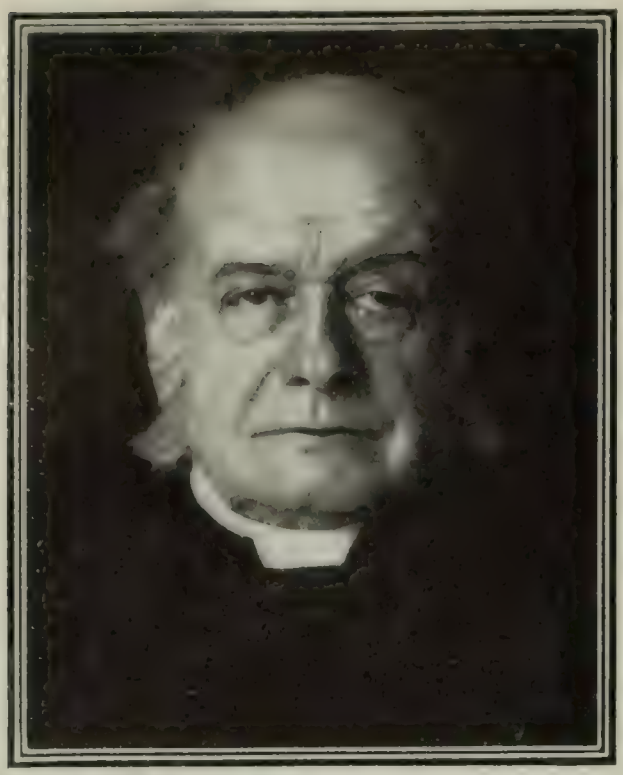
July 9.—Fourteen lives are lost by the collapse of a new bridge building over the Rhine at Cologne....The directors of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad declare a dividend at the full dividend rate....A successful test of wireless telephony is made between New York City and Newark, N. J.



GOVERNOR HASKELL, OF OKLAHOMA.
(Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions at Denver.)

July 10.—The Cunarder *Lusitania* becomes the first 25-knot steamer on the Atlantic, having made an average speed for the western trip of 25.01 knots, and having also made a single day's run of 643 knots....Paris contractors vote to order a general lockout, owing to strikes and boycotts by workingmen....Seven persons are killed and nine injured in a railroad collision in Alberta, Western Canada....The Brooklyn singers visiting Germany are received by the Crown Prince and Princess at Potsdam.

July 11.—The "all big gun" battleship, the *South Carolina*, is launched at Philadelphia.



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THE LATE BISHOP POTTER, OF NEW YORK.

(The Rt. Rev. Henry C. Potter, who died on July 21, was perhaps the most widely known bishop of the American Episcopal Church.)

July 12.—In a test of the new high-pressure fire system in New York City a stream is thrown to the roof of a seventeen-story building.

July 13.—Thirty men are drowned in a gale off the Spanish coast, three vessels being lost. ....Forest fires in New York, Maine, and New Hampshire do great damage....The Olympic Games are opened by King Edward at the Stadium, Shepherd's Bush, London.

July 14.—The name of the San Jacinto National Forest is changed to the Cleveland National Forest in honor of the late ex-President.

July 15.—The United States battleship *Nebraska* rejoins the Atlantic fleet, which is near Honolulu....The Prince of Wales leaves Portsmouth for Quebec on board the *Indomitable*.

July 16.—The Atlantic battleship fleet reaches the harbor of Honolulu....Twenty-five persons are drowned by the founding of a pleasure launch in a typhoon on Manila Bay....An earthquake in Chile, Peru, and Bolivia causes much destruction of property.

July 19.—The celebration of the Quebec tercentenary is formally begun....Showers break the drought in Maine....The balloon *Chicago* wins the endurance and distance prizes in the race from St. Paul.

OBITUARY.

June 21.—Capt. Lorenzo Dow Baker, founder of the United Fruit Company, 68.

June 22.—M. Rimski-Korsakov, the Russian composer of opera.

June 23.—Charles Payne Sears, the artist, 44. ....Charles Burke Jefferson, eldest son of the comedian Joseph Jefferson, 57....William Bateman Leeds, formerly president of the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific Railway Company, 47.

June 24.—Grover Cleveland, ex-President of the United States, 71 (see page 188)....Sir William Vallance Whiteway, ex-Premier of Newfoundland, 81.

June 26.—Representative William H. Parker, of South Dakota, 61....Vice-Admiral Charles Regnault de Prémesnil, of the French navy, 71. ....Lieut.-Col. Ammon A. Augur, U. S. A., promoted for bravery at San Juan Hill, 55.

June 28.—Robert T. Nevin, the Pittsburg publisher and oil operator, 88.

June 29.—Sir Edward Baldwin Malet, formerly British Ambassador to Germany, 71.

July 1.—George H. Daniels, formerly general passenger agent of the New York Central Railroad, 66....Rear-Admiral Charles H. Rockwell, U. S. N., retired, 68....Prof. Alexander V. G. Allen, of the Episcopal Theological School of Cambridge, Mass., 67.

July 2—Murat Halstead, a leader in American journalism, 79 (see page 191)....Gen. George Sherman Batcheller, judge of the international tribunal of Egypt, 72.

July 3.—Joel Chandler Harris, journalist and author, 60 (see page 214)....Rear-Admiral Charles M. Thomas, U. S. N., retired, who commanded the second squadron of the battleship fleet on the cruise around the Horn, 62.

July 4.—Count Nicholas Pavolitch Ignatiev, the Russian general and diplomatist, 76.

July 5.—Jonas Lauritz Edemil Lie, the Norwegian poet and novelist, 75.

July 9.—Judge Charles Alvord Bishop, of the Iowa Supreme Court, 54.

July 11.—Rt. Rev. Alfred A. Curtis, vicar-general of the archdiocese of Baltimore and formerly Roman Catholic bishop of Wilmington, Del., 77.

July 12.—Rev. Erastus Blakeslee, founder of a system of Sunday-school instruction, 70.

July 13.—Count de Merode, president of the Belgian Senate....Col. George Bliss Sanford, United States Cavalry, retired, 66.

July 14.—Dr. William Mason, the musician, 79....Prof. Frederic Louis Otto Roehrig, the German Orientalist and composer, 89.

July 15.—Gen. Rafael Portuondo, the Cuban revolutionist.

July 16.—Hugh McCurdy, former head of the Knights Templar in the United States, 79.

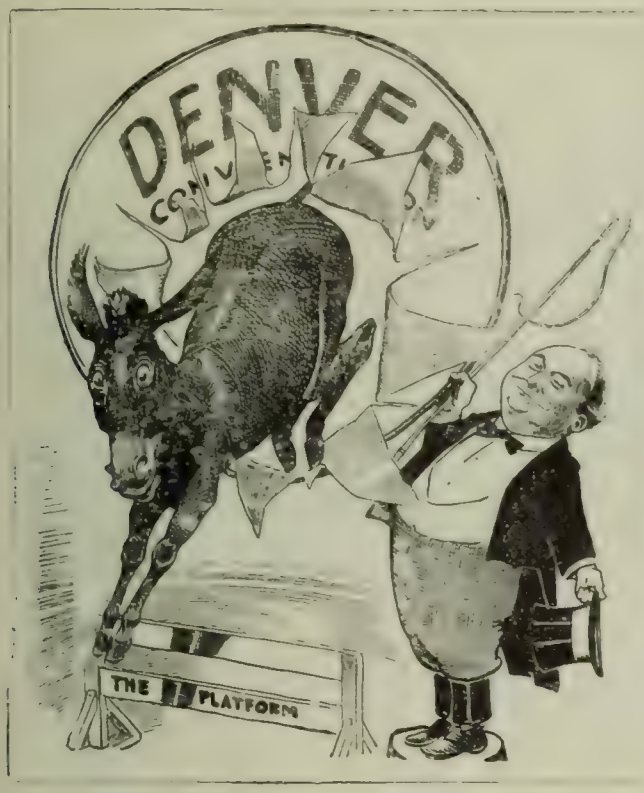
July 17.—Ex-Justice Howard Douglass, of the Ohio Supreme Court, 61....Ralph O. Williams, writer and lexicographer, 70.

July 18.—Señor James Nuno, composer of the Mexican national anthem....Mrs. Hannah Louisa Whitman Heyde, last surviving sister of the poet, Walt Whitman, 84.

July 19.—William Winslow Sherman, the retired New York banker, 75....Rev. Joachim Elmendorf, D.D., of the Reformed Church, 81. ....Dr. Frank Kraft, of Cleveland, secretary of the American Institute of Homeopathy....Ignacio Veintemilla, ex-President of Ecuador, 78. ....Capt. Henry McCrea, U. S. N., 57.

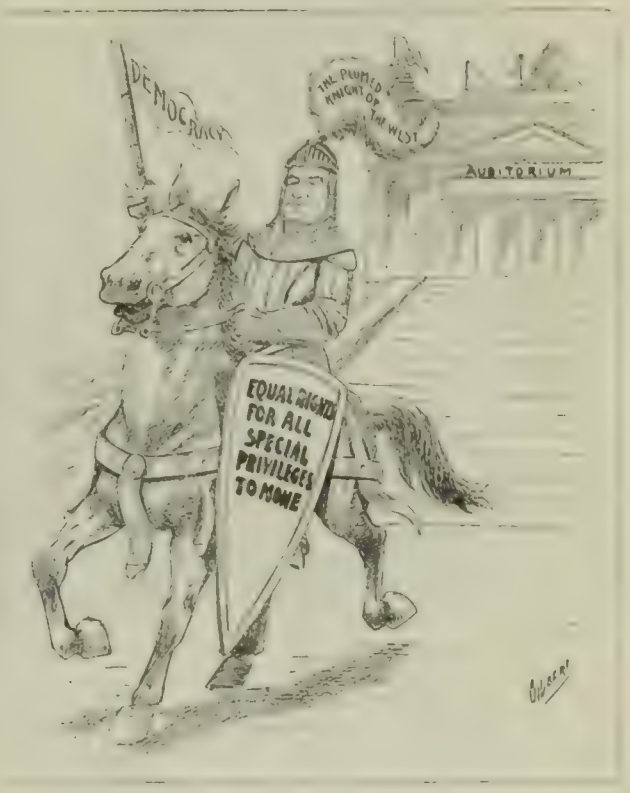
July 20.—Prof. Otto Pfleiderer, of the University of Berlin, 69....Prof Louis Dyer, lecturer and author, 57....Anecito Garcia Menocal, a well-known civil engineer attached to the United States Navy, 72.

BRYAN AND OTHERS IN CURRENT CARTOONS.



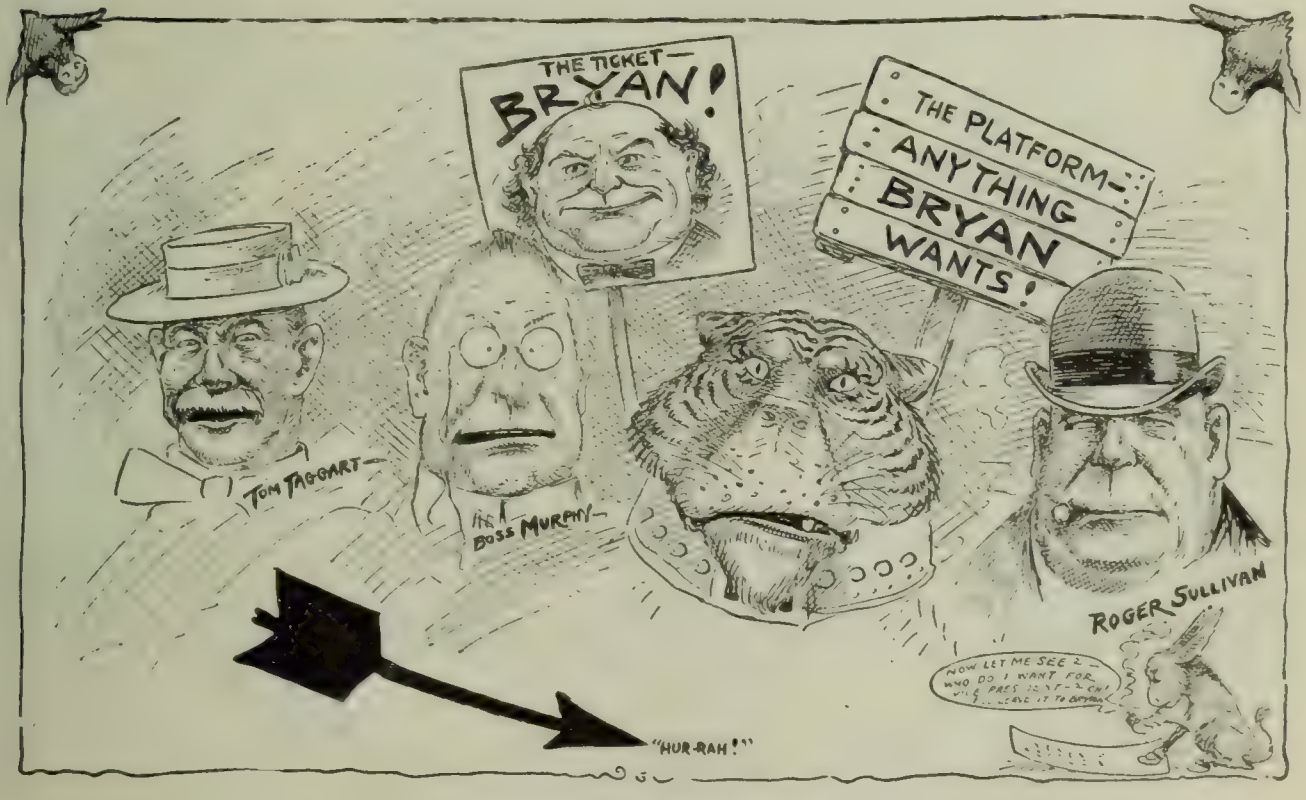
THE RINGMASTER AT DENVER.

From the *Dispatch* (Columbus).



READY FOR THE BATTLE.

From the *Rocky Mountain News* (Denver).



IT WAS ALL "CUT AND DRIED."

From the *Post* (Denver).



QUOTH THE RAVEN: "EVERMORE!"
From the *American* (New York).



HE BORROWED THE "BIG STICK."
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



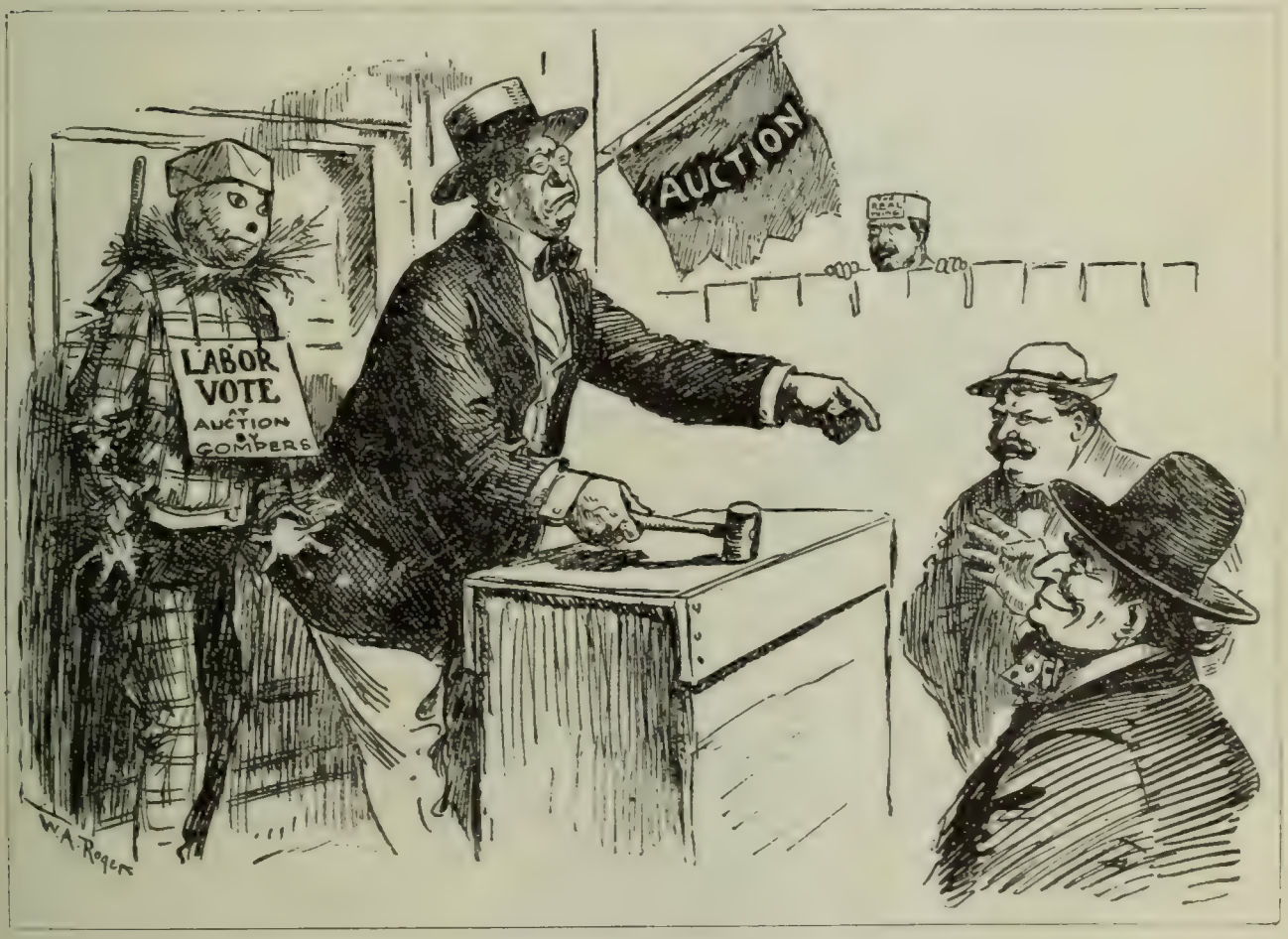
BRYAN: "Let's see, have I overlooked anybody?"
From the *Daily Tribune* (Chicago).



AFTER EIGHT LONG YEARS!

A reconciliation at Denver which means a hot race for the White House.

From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica).



SAMUEL GOMPERS AS AUCTIONEER: "SOLD!" YES, SOMEBODY'S SOLD.

From the *Herald* (New York).



KERN—IS INJEANNY HIS'N—IS HE HER'N?



DISCHARGED WITHOUT HONOR.

From the *Herald* (New York).



No. 1.

BALAAM BRYAN.

"What have I done unto thee that thou hast smitten me these three times?"—*Numbers xxii., 28.*

[The management of the *Sun* has consented, at my request, to allow me to present to its readers my personal conception of the situation now confronting the American voter. To-day is given what is assumed to be the picture in the mind of the voter who feels it his duty to vote the Democratic ticket. My individual opinion is that, had Mr. Bryan eliminated himself two years ago, some man of the type of Johnson or Folk could have gotten all the original party vote and enough Roosevelt-made Democrats to win over Mr. Taft or any other Republican, Roosevelt excepted. Mr. Bryan's free-silver record and his government-ownership pronunciamento make the donkey who dreads the sword of fire tremble at the third wallop. In to-morrow's *Sun* I will illustrate my idea of the dilemma of the man who contemplates jumping from the fire into the frying-pan by voting for Mr. Taft. The question is, Of the two evils—which?—*McKee Barclay.*]

THE TWO EVILS.



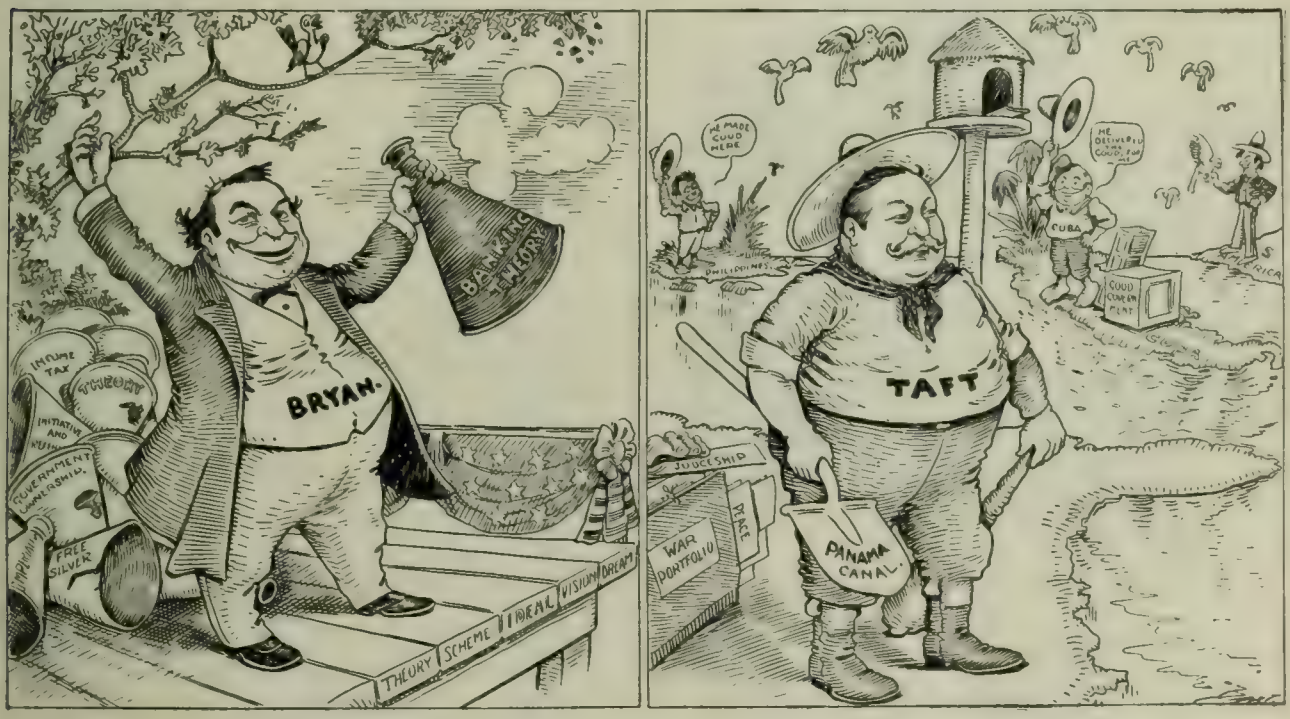
No. 2.

THE STOLEN BLESSING.

"The hands are the hands of Roosevelt, but the voice is the voice of Aldrich."

[Yesterday the *Sun* published a cartoon of Balaam Bryan asked by the ass, "What have I done unto thee that thou hast smitten me these three times?" The picture appealed to those who object to Bryan's nomination. The cartoon to-day presents the situation ignored by the man who is willing to vote the Republican ticket because he considers Taft's election the lesser of two evils and is willing to overlook conditions existing in the Republican party. This allegory shows the deception practiced on Isaac ("Uncle Sam") by Rebecca ("the Republican party"), who is putting forward her son Jacob ("the Aldrich System") to receive the blessing intended for Esau ("the Roosevelt policies").]

From the *Sun* (Baltimore).



THEORY. AND PRACTICE.

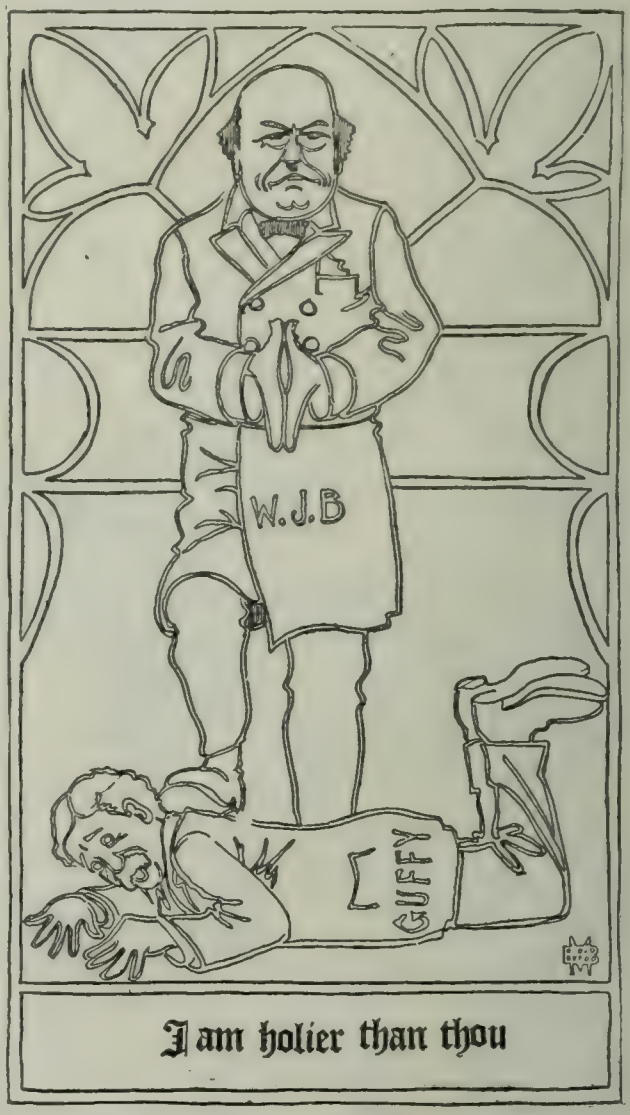
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



DESIGN FOR ANOTHER STAINED GLASS WINDOW.
From the *Daily Tribune* (Chicago).



ANOTHER OF THOSE CONVENTIONS.
From the *Press* (New York).

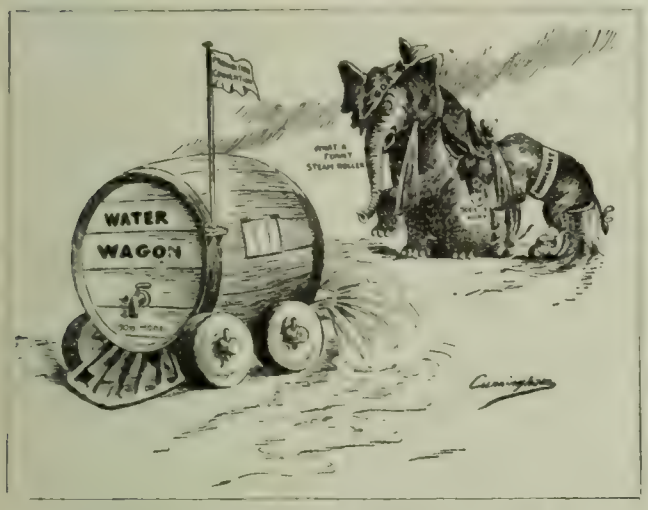


DESIGN OF THE WINDOW THAT COLONEL GUFFEY WISHES HE HAD PRESENTED TO MR. BRYAN.
From the *Sun* (Baltimore).



STILL SHRIEKING.

From the *Globe* (New York).



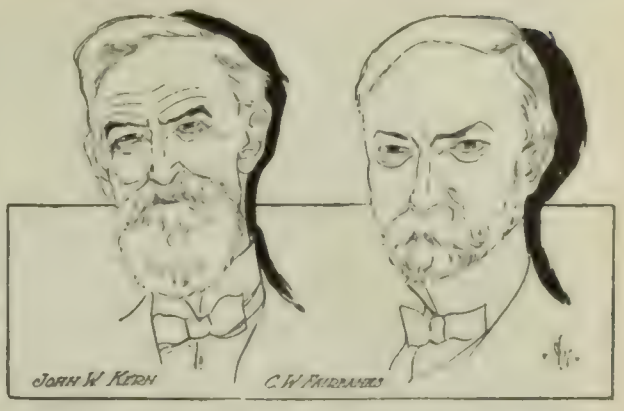
THE PROHIBITIONIST "STEAM ROLLER."

From the *Herald* (Washington).



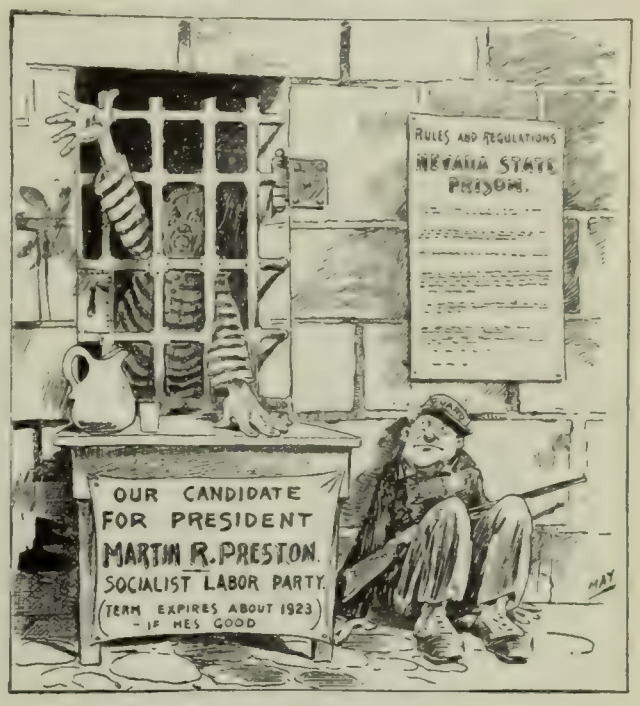
JEALOUS—YES?

From the *Post* (Denver).



TWO GENTLEMEN FROM INDIANA—WHY NOT?

From the *Times* (Denver).



ANOTHER PORCH CAMPAIGN.

From the *Journal* (Detroit).



SPIRITS FROM THE PAST—"Where is the Old Democratic Party?" BRYAN—"See Inside."

SPIRITS FROM THE PAST: "Where is the old Democratic party?"

BRYAN: "See inside."

From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia).

JAMES S. SHERMAN, REPUBLICAN CANDIDATE FOR VICE-PRESIDENT.

BY WILLIAM E. WEED.

(Managing Editor of the Utica *Herald Dispatch.*)

IN nominating James Schoolcraft Sherman, Representative in Congress from the Twenty-seventh New York District, as the Republican candidate for Vice-President, the Chicago convention was influenced largely by the opinions of Mr. Sherman's Republican colleagues in Congress. They were convinced that no other man talked of for the second place on the ticket possessed in greater measure the qualifications of ability, training, and experience, both for the work of the campaign and for the duties of the Vice-Presidential office. They first suggested Mr. Sherman's candidacy, and they consistently and cordially advocated his nomination throughout the ante-convention discussion of candidates. It was their sustained and vigorous support in the convention, backed by consideration of the strength Mr. Sherman would give to the ticket, especially in New York, that finally brought about his nomination on the first ballot, by an almost unanimous vote.

This influence in Mr. Sherman's behalf was personified when Speaker Cannon unexpectedly appeared in the convention hall, took the platform, and told the delegates, with his characteristic force and directness, why Mr. Sherman, with whom he had worked nearly twenty years in Congress, would make a good candidate and a good Vice-President,—an incident unique in the history of national conventions.

The reason for all this confidence and good-will on the part of those who have been close to Mr. Sherman in public affairs is found in the man himself and in his career as a legislator. In him are joined a personality that rarely fails to win friendly regard and a record of public service, whose value, while recognized generally, is best understood by the men who earnestly and effectively advocated his nomination at Chicago.

As in the case of Mr. Taft, his companion on the Republican ticket, Mr. Sherman's public career has fitted him peculiarly for the office for which he has been named. He was first elected to Congress in 1886, from the district comprising the counties of Oneida and Lewis, and afterward Oneida and Herkimer, now the Twenty-seventh New York District, and with the exception of the two years from 1891-'93, he has represented that district continuously ever since. He has been mentioned many times for other offices, most recently for the governorship of his State. He was offered the secretaryship of the United States Senate, and President McKinley, in his first term, named him for the post of general appraiser at New York. This appraisership position was along the line of his inclinations at the time, but he declined it upon the special request of the people of his district. Had he not been called this year to fill a larger place, Mr. Sherman would, undoubtedly, have been returned to Congress for his eleventh term, for among his own people, as well as with his Congressional colleagues, his worth is widely recognized, and his popularity almost unbounded. So much is this the case that, if there be any who have a feeling that his nomination for the Vice-Presidency is not an unmixed favor, they are most likely to be found in the ranks of his own constituents, those whom he has represented, and who appreciate the truth that they cannot easily replace him as their Member of Congress. The place he has in their affections was shown upon his arrival home after his illness in Cleveland, immediately following the convention at Chicago, when the people of his home city of Utica, and thousands from the other cities and villages of his district, gathered to welcome him. The expression of regard was singular, both in enthusiasm and scope, inasmuch as members of all parties joined in it, one of the two speakers on this occasion being a former Democratic State officer prominently mentioned for the gubernatorial nomination this year. Such is the feeling for Mr. Sherman in the city and district where he was born on October 24, 1855,—two years before Mr. Taft first saw the light in Cincinnati.

Mr. Sherman was drafted into the public service not long after his admission to the bar in 1880. He was graduated from Ham-



MR. AND MRS. JAMES S. SHERMAN AT THEIR UTICA HOME.

lton College at Clinton, N. Y., in 1878, the same year in which Mr. Taft was graduated from Yale. He then took up the study of law in his native city and, upon his admission, entered into partnership with his brother-in-law, ex-Assemblyman Henry J. Cookingham. In 1884 the Republicans of Utica elected him mayor of the city, and at the close of his two-year term he was chosen to contest the Congressional election with Representative J. Thomas Spriggs, a Demo-



THE HOUSE (IN UTICA) WHERE MR. SHERMAN WAS BORN.

crat, who had held the office two terms, and defeated him. Then began the long period of his service at Washington, interrupted for but one term, which finally has brought him the honor of a nomination for the second office in the land.

MR. SHERMAN IN CONGRESS.

The story of Mr. Sherman's Congressional career is the story of a diligent worker in the public service, of positive party convictions, and of one who developed remarkable executive talent in the special work on which he was engaged. He early formed a strong friendship with the late Speaker Reed, and, indeed, his close acquaintance with Mr. Reed probably more than anything else exerted a powerful influence upon his career. It was under Mr. Reed as Speaker of the House that Mr. Sherman's service assumed a character that brought him into national prominence. Mr. Reed appointed him to the chairmanship of the Committee on Indian Affairs in the Fifty-fifth Congress, a place he has filled with distinguished success throughout his Congressional career, and to membership in the Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce. Mr. Sherman's most important legislative work has perhaps been done on the Indian Affairs Committee. He is credited with a better understanding of the various questions connected with the Government's obligations to the Indians and its efforts to fulfill them than that of any other Congressman who has been called upon to deal with this subject. The Indian legislation advocated by him and the policies he has successfully pursued in this field are recognized as valuable and wise.

ON THE INDIAN COMMITTEE.

The laws affecting the Indians which have been passed under Mr. Sherman's direction, as demonstrating his capacity for statesmanship, had an important bearing upon his candidacy for the nomination for Vice-President. In all States having Indian population the value of his work in Congress is highly appreciated, and the delegates from those States were among his enthusiastic supporters in the convention. It was plain that he would bring strength to the ticket, not only in New York, but also in the States of the West,—Kansas, the Dakotas, Oklahoma, and others,—where the Indian legislation had benefited both the wards of the Government and the people of the States at large. Some of the warmest expressions of congratulation and assurance of support that Mr. Sherman has received since his nomination come from the Indian States. These expressions have come from Democrats as well as Republicans, and they indicate that, when Mr. Sherman swings around the circle in the campaign, he will receive nowhere a more cordial welcome than from the people of the States whose welfare has been promoted by his intelligent and conscientious work in the Indian Affairs Committee.

Mr. Sherman's work in other committees has been equally creditable. One of his measures as a member of the Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce was the False-branding Bill, which has proved effective in protecting American cheese manufacturers. He made the first favorable report to the House on a Nicaragua canal, before the Panama project had developed, and strongly supported the Isthmian Canal enterprise; he was the father of the Philippine Cable bill and of the bill for the reorganization of the revenue-cutter service. He holds the third place in the important Committee on Rules, and has been looked to as one of the best counselors in guiding the business of the House.

AS PARLIAMENTARIAN.

Mr. Sherman is reputed to be the most expert parliamentarian in Congress. Mr. Reed as Speaker recognized Mr. Sherman's talent in this direction and employed it frequently. No other Representative has been called upon as often to preside over the deliberations of the House in Committee of the Whole, and some of the greatest debates in this body in the last fifteen years have been conducted with Mr. Sherman in the chair. The most famous of these debates, perhaps, was that on the Dingley Tariff bill, and on the Cuban War Revenue bill, each of which occupied many weeks. His services have been in demand, also, when the great appropriation bills have been under discussion, his keenness, readiness in trying situations, and his fairness finding favor with the members of the opposition as well as with the majority.

An instance of Mr. Sherman's quickness in meeting a situation while presiding in the House occurred during a Democratic filibuster, in the session in which Speaker Reed was given the title of "Czar" because of his rulings on the counting of a quorum and the exclusion of dilatory motions. Mr. Sherman was in the chair and the minority was using all the obstructive tactics it could muster. Representative Bailey, of Texas (now Senator), moved to lay the pending motion on the table. Mr. Sherman promptly ruled his motion out of order as dilatory. To the Texan's protest, Mr. Sherman said:

"If the gentleman from Texas makes his motion in good faith and will assure the chair that it is not a dilatory motion, the chair will put it."

Mr. Sherman had not trusted to the Southern idea of honor in vain, for Mr. Bailey did not renew his motion. Subsequently, in one of the committee rooms, Mr. Bailey came up to Mr. Sherman and, putting his arm over the New York member's shoulder, said: "Well, Jim, you had me that time."

This readiness of resource in conducting Congressional business, together with Mr. Sherman's fairness under all circumstances, has made him one of the most acceptable presiding officers the House has had for many years. When Mr. Reed resigned Mr. Sherman was a candidate for the speakership, but he gave way to Representative Henderson, of Iowa. His name came up again at the close of Speaker Henderson's service, but he supported his friend Cannon.



MR. SHERMAN AT THE AGE OF EIGHTEEN.



THE SHERMAN RESIDENCE AT UTICA.



Sherrill.



Richard U.



Thomas Moore.

MR. SHERMAN'S THREE SONS.

"SUNNY JIM'S" PARTY SERVICES.

It is commonly said that "Jim" Sherman, as he is affectionately called, is one of the best-loved members of the House. At Chicago his smiling countenance and cheery greeting won for him the title "Sunny Jim," and it well expresses the kindly nature of the man to whose support his colleagues gladly rallied. Recruits in the House for many years have reason to remember his pleasant courtesy in assisting them to "find themselves" in their new surroundings. He has made easy the way of many a newcomer in Washington, not looking for any return, but because it was his nature. Unknowingly, however, he was casting bread upon the waters, some of which came back to him at the Chicago convention.

Mr. Sherman's party services, outside of the halls of Congress, have been both distinguished and extensive. He has been the vice-chairman of the Congressional Campaign Committee in several campaigns and the chairman in one; and his work in those positions has earned for him much credit for executive ability. He is a convincing campaign orator, and in Congressional and Presidential campaigns has spoken to the people of many States. He presided over the New York Republican State conventions in 1895, 1900, and in the present year.

Mr. Sherman is not a man of large wealth. He is prominent in the affairs of his home city. He is an able lawyer, but, like other talented members of the profession who have been called to the public service, his time has been too closely occupied with the performance of official duty to permit the accumulation of a considerable fortune by devotion to his law practice. He is the president of a trust company in Utica, which has been successful under his administration, and vice-president of a national bank. He has interests in several local industrial enterprises. The business men of his city have a high opinion of his executive ability as it has been revealed to them in connection with these financial and industrial institutions.

BUSINESS AND SOCIAL INTERESTS.

Among his home people Mr. Sherman is approachable, genial, and democratic. Like his colleagues in Congress, they refer to him as "Jim" Sherman, expressing by the appellation both their appreciation of his personal qualities and their sense of his nearness to them as their long-time Representative. Old soldiers among his constituents are especially loyal in their friendship for him, for he has a genuine regard for those veterans of the army and has always been solicitous for their interests at Washington, No old soldier ever found Mr. Sherman too busy to give attention to him.

Mr. Sherman lives in a modest but beauti-

ful home on the principal residence street in Utica. Mrs. Sherman, before marriage, was Miss Carrie Babcock, a daughter of a leading lawyer of Utica and granddaughter of Col. Eliakim Sherrill, who was killed in the evening of the third day's fighting at Gettysburg. Mr. Sherman's father, Gen. Richard Updyke Sherman, was a Democrat, and was prominent in affairs, having held several important State offices. He was a native of Oneida County, N. Y. The candidate's mother, Mary F. Sherman, was a native of Vermont. Mr. Sherman has three sons, all of whom, like himself, are graduates of Hamilton College. Sherrill, twenty-six years old, is in the banking business with his father; Richard Updyke, aged twenty-four, is an instructor in mathematics at Hamilton College, and Thomas Moore, aged twenty-two, is in business in Utica. The family attend the Dutch Reformed Church, Mr. Sherman being president of the board of trustees and church treasurer.

In summing up Mr. Sherman's qualifications for the Vice-Presidency, it can be confidently said that he is eminently worthy and capable. He is a man of blameless personal character, and of large powers and experience, who has shown special aptitude for the duties of the presiding officer of the United States Senate, and who, if he were called upon to take the place of the chief executive, would give the country a safe and efficient administration.

JOHN WORTH KERN, DEMOCRATIC CANDIDATE FOR VICE-PRESIDENT.

BY FREDERIC AUSTIN OGG.

I AM not, and have not been, a candidate for the Vice-Presidential nomination, and if there is to be any contest,—any balloting at all,—for second place, my name will not go before the convention. Whether or not the nomination comes to me, I will have just as much regard for you and will feel just as kindly toward you. Now let us go home and carry Indiana for the Democratic ticket. God bless you.

SUCH was the altogether characteristic deliverance of John W. Kern to the Indiana delegation at Denver at a moment when the impending nomination of a candidate for the Vice-Presidency seemed likely to be turned to him or from him by the weight of a feather. And nobody who knows Kern would ever for an instant question the honest dignity and hearty good-will that lay behind the utterance. The straightforward speech of a man who has been in political life for upward of forty years, and a candidate for public office not fewer than half a dozen times, without ever being so much as accused of demagogy, is not subject to discount. Mr. Kern is a politician from the ground up. He hails from a State whose every second citizen, according to the facetiously inclined, is at least latently either a politician or a novelist. And he has confessedly aspired for many years to the Vice-Presidency, a Senatorship, or some such position of distinction. But he has never been willing to force a battle for mere personal aggrandizement; he has never been known to suffer a friendship to lapse by reason of his political fortunes and misfortunes; and his dignified and conciliatory attitude at Denver in a somewhat trying situation was precisely what any one who knows him would have expected of him. John Worth Kern, be it said once for all, is man and citizen first, politician and office-seeker afterward.

Of good Virginian ancestry, Mr. Kern is none the less a typical product of the Middle West. His father was one of the thousands of energetic sons of the Old Dominion who, toward the middle of the last century, poured westward across the Alleghanies into Indiana, Illinois, and the great Northwest, hewing out for their families in what was still largely a backwoods country substantial homes, larger opportunities, and the foundations for future usefulness and prosperity.

BOYHOOD AND YOUTH.

The elder Kern, who was a physician, after a sojourn in Warren County, Ohio, settled, in 1836, in Shelby County, Indiana, some thirty miles southeast of Indianapolis. Ten years later he removed to the Alto settlement in Howard County, a hundred miles to the north, and there, in 1849, John Worth Kern was born. From 1854 to 1864 the

family occupied a tract of wilderness known as "Hoosiers' Row," in Warren County, Iowa, but the close of the Civil War found them back in Indiana, where, among other advantages, the prevalence of "shaking-ague" afforded a more lucrative field for the medical practitioner.

HARD YEARS OF SCHOOLING.

The education of the boy was something of a problem, but a private school at Kokomo,—the so-called Indiana Normal College, —was happily available, and it sufficed to prepare for the university. Attendance meant a ten-mile horseback ride every day, in all kinds of weather, but, like many another Hoosier lad of that day and since in similar circumstances, the thorns in the road to learning merely prodded to more determined effort. Mr. Kern delights to tell to-day how he recited his lessons to his horse during the noon recess, and how on the way to and from school he was accustomed to indulge in flights of oratory that awoke the echoes and made the old mare prick up her ears.

Before he was sixteen years of age young Kern, still a slender lad, weighing little more than 100 pounds, had himself become a Hoosier schoolmaster, in a district where, as was usually the case in those primitive days, a goodly proportion of the "pupils" were strapping fellows of eighteen, twenty, or even twenty-five years. The good nature and tact with which the youthful dispenser of learning was abundantly blessed carried him over all difficulties, and with the money thus earned he was able, at the age of seventeen, to enter the University of Michigan. After one year in the academic department he decided to take up the study of law. In 1869, when but little more than nineteen years old, he received his law degree, and hung out his shingle at Kokomo.

EARLY POLITICAL EXPERIENCE.

When barely beyond his twenty-first year he was "drafted" by his party to run for the State Legislature, and his political career was fairly begun. The odds were heavily against him, and he failed of election, but he made so brilliant a campaign that he was almost immediately chosen city attorney of Kokomo, to which office he was re-elected five successive times. Politics continued to attract irresistibly, and a race was made for the State Senate, but this was likewise unsuccessful. In 1884 the Democrats put the young politician upon their State ticket as a candidate for Reporter of the Supreme Court. This time he was elected, though in 1888 the Republicans, led by Gen. Benjamin Harrison, swept the State, and Mr. Kern failed of re-election. He then settled himself to the practice of law in Indianapolis, where he has since resided.

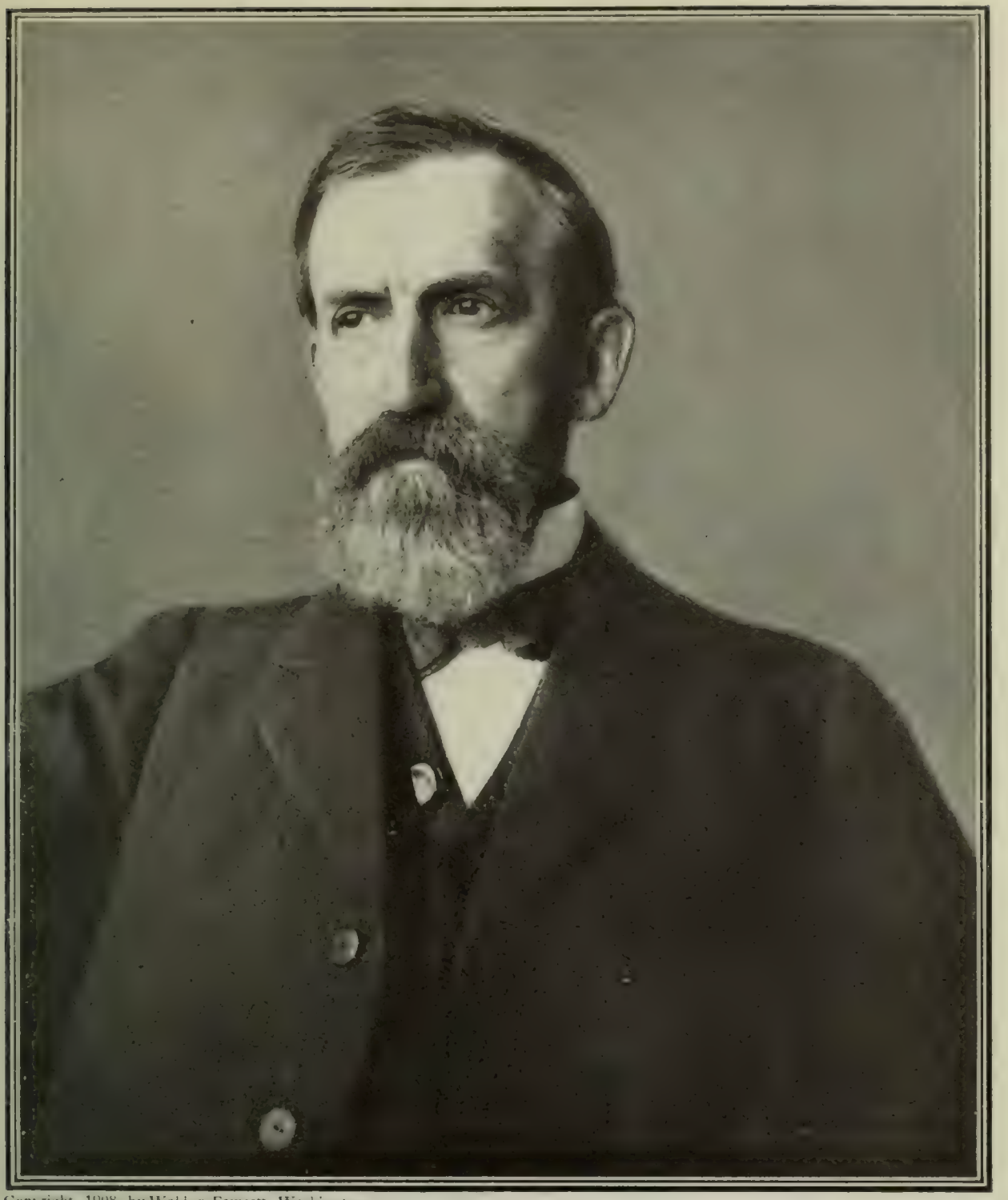
From 1893 to 1897 he was the leader of his party on the floor of the Indiana State Senate, and from 1897 to 1901 he occupied the position of city attorney of Indianapolis, by appointment of Mayor Thomas Taggart. It was at this point that there began the close relations of Kern and Taggart which, justly or unjustly, have at times brought the former some sharp criticism, but which reached their logical culmination in the active and successful campaigning of Taggart in Kern's behalf at the Denver convention.

NAMED FOR THE GOVERNORSHIP.

In 1900 the Indiana Democrats, believing they had an excellent chance to carry the State, nominated Kern for Governor as the man whose candidacy was thought most likely to bring about the desired result. He was defeated by some 25,000 votes, but at the Republican jollification in Indianapolis following the election he made a good-natured speech that commended him more than ever to men of all parties as a cheerful loser and an all-round good fellow. A similar exhibition of unfailing courtesy and good humor was given in 1904, when, upon the return of Charles W. Fairbanks from the Chicago convention as the Republican Vice-Presidential nominee, Mr. Kern, as president of the Indianapolis Commercial Club, made the principal speech of felicitation on behalf of his fellow-townsmen. Very appropriately, when Mr. Kern himself returned to Indianapolis with similar honors after the Denver convention, it was Mr. Fairbanks who presided at the enthusiastic non-partisan reception that was tendered him by the people of the city.

In 1904 Mr. Kern a second time bore the standards of the Indiana Democracy as its candidate for Governor, and after a hard fight was defeated by the present incumbent, J. Frank Hanly. The majority against him this time was 85,000, though he ran well ahead of the Presidential candidate, Alton B. Parker.

Such are the salient events in the career of the man who is now to have the support of the Democracy's millions for the Vice-Presidency of the United States. But what of the man himself? It is sufficiently apparent,



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HON. JOHN WORTH KERN, OF INDIANA.

of course, that Mr. Kern, like the majority of men of prominence in the Middle West to-day, is of the self-made type. That such a career as his, from district school through the university to the law office and the trust of a great political party, is so easily possible constitutes one of the chief glories of this Republic.

HIS POPULARITY IN HIS HOME TOWN.

True to his antecedents and the circumstances of his bringing up, Mr. Kern is a democrat of democrats. In manners, as in principles, he is pre-eminently a man of the people, though he is quite above any attempt to appeal to the voting *hoi polloi* by the mere affectation of bucolic tastes and interests. In making up an estimate of the man one cannot do better than to accept the judgment of his Indiana neighbors, and especially of his every-day acquaintances in Indianapolis. Indianapolis is a flourishing and progressive city, but it has not yet thrown off certain of the characteristics of a big, overgrown country

town. One of the pleasantest of these characteristics is the neighborly pride which its citizens take in the honors that fall to any one of their number. Everybody knows Fairbanks, Beveridge, Kern, and the lesser lights, and everybody, irrespective of political affiliations, is ready to hang out Old Glory, burn red fire, and "whoop things up" generally when unusual distinction has fallen to a fellow-townsman. The non-partisan demonstration spontaneously arranged for the occasion of Mr. Kern's return from Denver was, however, a really remarkable and exceptional testimonial to the nominee's popularity among his own people. In a city like Indianapolis there would have been an ovation for any similarly honored favorite son, but it is doubtful whether the nomination of any other man would have been made the occasion for so widely participated in and so heartfelt a reception as that given the present candidate.

For, within the somewhat restricted field in which he is known, John Kern is unquestionably a very popular man. He possesses the faculty of forming friendships readily and naturally, with the result that, after forty years of successful legal practice and not less than twenty-five of active public life, he is probably as well known to the citizenship of Indiana as any man in the State. And he is one of those happy individuals of whom it can be said that invariably those who know them best like them best. There is about him a peculiar quality of simplicity, earnestness, and manliness, an unfailing good humor and cheerfulness under political disappointment and personal ill-health, a frankness of speech and a generous impulsiveness of act, that endear him to everybody who is brought in contact with him, whether in public or private capacity. His most prominent personal trait is, perhaps, his unfailing affability. Like Mr. Bryan in his geniality and his democracy of manner, as indeed in many other regards, Mr. Kern is himself often referred to by his Indiana friends as "the commoner." In public speech, and even in private conversation, he can be, and not infrequently is, keenly satirical; but his satire is of the sort that never rankles nor makes him enemies. "There is no better man in the city of Indianapolis, nor in the State of Indiana, than John W. Kern," declared Vice-President Fairbanks when he was informed of his friend's nomination; and the mass of the citizens of city and State manifestly agree with the dictum.

OF DELICATE HEALTH.

In appearance Mr. Kern is far from rugged, and, though he seems to possess enormous vitality, his family and most intimate friends make no attempt to conceal their apprehensions that the stress of the campaign may tax his strength unduly. Two or three years ago his health failed and he and his friends were forced to believe that he was rapidly going into decline. Warned by his physician against the imminence of consumption, he started in to battle for his life. He sought a moderate climate in the South, and after a six months' stay came home a new man. Since then his health has been most encouraging, though of course he is under the perpetual necessity of guarding it as few men have the patience to do. Scrupulously abstemious and regular in his habits of life, he may be expected to put the maximum of energy into the forthcoming fight with the minimum of drainage upon his constitution; and everybody will join in wishing for both him and Mr. Sherman the very fullest measure of physical well-being.

PROFESSIONAL AND CIVIC RELATIONS.

The range of Mr. Kern's activities in his home city is broad and varied. By profession he is a lawyer, and there are few who rank above him in the city or State. He has been connected with scores of important criminal trials, but in later years his services have been confined almost wholly to the civil practice.

In his capacity of president of the Indianapolis College of Law Mr. Kern is a legal educator as well as practitioner. He is, indeed, pre-eminently a lawyerly sort of man, and yet he is a great deal more than that. He is, for example, a churchman, born and reared a Methodist, though in later life an active Presbyterian and a member of the Tabernacle congregation in Indianapolis. He is also a clubman, of the sort that a substantial citizen of a smaller Western city is expected to be,—that is, he has a lively interest in business and literature, and he participates with equal zest in the deliberations of the Commercial Club and the philosophizings of the Century. He is also a Scottish Rite Mason and an Odd Fellow.

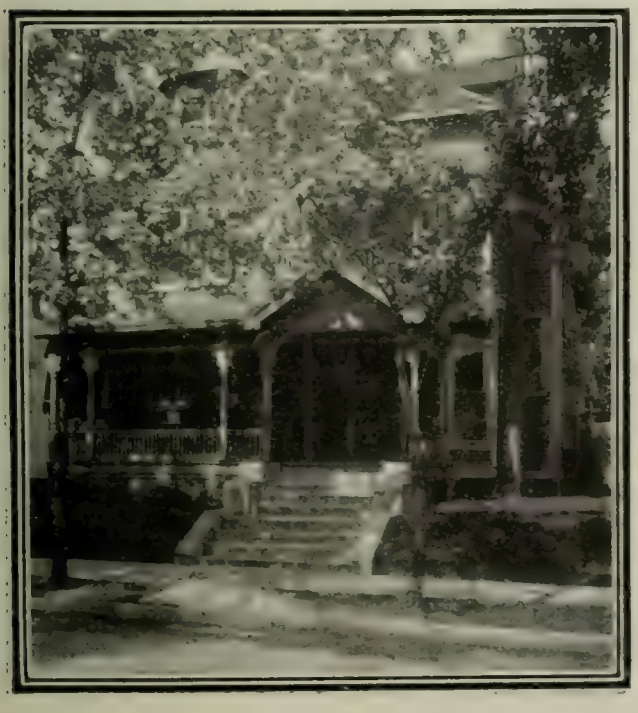
HOME LIFE.

Finally, he is the head of a most interesting and ideal household. There are three children,—a grown daughter, who is a leader in the social life of the younger set in

Indianapolis, and two boys, nine and five years of age, respectively. Mrs. Kern has all the elements of popularity so conspicuous in her husband, and has been particularly prominent in the promotion of kindergarten work and the various charities of the city. By the testimony of all her neighbors she would make a most admirable Mrs. Vice-President. As one of them declared the other day, Mr. Kern deserved the nomination because he had the good judgment to marry so clever and capable a woman. I suppose this is on the same principle that it used to be said of another clever Indianapolis lady that her husband ought to be elected Governor because his wife would make such an excellent governess.

CHANGING POLITICAL IDEALS.

The charge which has most frequently been brought against Mr. Kern by his political rivals,—the only one, indeed, for which there is even the appearance of a substantial basis,—is that his political record is unbecomingly variegated, and his political ideals are unduly fluctuating. There are thousands of Democrats, not to mention adherents of other political faiths, who feel that he missed a splendid chance to serve his party in 1896 when he failed to stand by his own previously expressed gold-standard principles. He believed, however, at that time that the only way,—or, at least, the best way,—to serve the party was to remain "regular" and give support to the nominee, whoever he might be and on whatsoever platform. Certainly, he



THE KERN RESIDENCE AT INDIANAPOLIS.



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MRS. JOHN W. KERN.

was very far from alone in this judgment. It might be possible, likewise, to show that Mr. Kern has been both for and against hauling down the flag in the Philippines, and, more recently, both for and against an anti-injunction plank in the Denver platform. In respect to these and other similar matters, however, he would simply fall back upon the homely adage that circumstances alter cases, in which line of defense he would be but emulating the example of his chief. And though both men are perhaps as vulnerable at this point as at any other, neither is the mere "fluttering and flighty politician" that some of the hostile journals have recently been designating Mr. Kern.

TESTS OF AVAILABILITY.

Everybody understands that in these days Vice-Presidential candidates are chosen by all parties from a good many considerations besides those of statesmanlike capacity. No leading party in the past twenty-five years has nominated,—would have dared to nominate,—a man notoriously unfit, in point of personal character or temperament, for the

duties of the office. But, assuming the prerequisites of personality, the considerations which practically determine Vice-Presidential nominations are reducible to four: (1) The desire to enhance party prospects in a doubtful State or section; (2) the desire to placate warring factions within the party, or at least to give representation on the ticket to rival wings; (3) the assumption that, however active the Presidential nominee may be, the candidate for the Vice-Presidency will bear the brunt of the field campaign; and (4) the thirst for the campaign funds, the sinews of war, which the candidate may be able to produce from his own or other people's chests. Sometimes one of these considerations dominates and sometimes another; occasionally, though not often, they all play their part together.

Judged by these tests, how well may Mr. Kern be expected to measure up to the requirements of his present position? In the first place, will his candidacy enhance the chances of the Democracy in the section obviously intended to be appealed to by it,—*i.e.*, the Middle West and, more particularly, Indiana? There is no denying that Mr. Kern falls very far short of enjoying a reputation that is national. He is not well known, indeed, outside of his own State. Still, in these days, the Vice-Presidential candidate who does not require a pretty extensive introduction to the people of the country at large is quite the exception, and Mr. Kern's comparative obscurity may not, in the long run, count seriously against him or the ticket. As an ardent disciple of Bryan he will naturally commend himself to Bryan followers everywhere, and especially to those of the Western States, with whom both men are so closely identified. But it is difficult to see that his candidacy can evoke for the ticket much support anywhere which would not have been forthcoming in any case. Even in Indiana the effect is problematical.

On the one hand, it is perfectly obvious that Mr. Kern is justly the most popular Democrat in the State. He has been clearly the leader of his party for a decade, the successor of Voorhees, McDonald, Hendricks, and Gray. He has been the party's choice twice for Governor, once for United States Senator, and now for Vice-President. If the Democrats should lose in the national campaign, but carry Indiana, he would doubtless be elected to succeed Mr. Hemenway in the Senate. Furthermore, he has the friendship of more Republicans than has any other Democrat of prominence in the State, and a firmer grip upon the favor of the people as a whole. Yet the fact remains that, in a State which is always in the doubtful column, and in a year when such a stronghold of Republicanism as Massachusetts could elect a Democratic Governor, Mr. Kern was overwhelmingly beaten in his race for the governorship. Somehow, one cannot repress the suspicion that he is one of those men whom everybody likes, but who, more or less unaccountably, can never quite convert this pleasing popularity into a preponderance of votes. The candidacy of Kern will, of course, add zest to the campaign in Indiana; the Republicans will be goaded by it to make a harder fight there, and throughout the Middle West generally; but that of itself it will throw even so much as the one State into the Democratic column may be very strongly doubted, though until the final results are in this will remain probably the profoundest uncertainty in the whole political situation. With a characteristic touch of political fatalism the point was urged at Denver that the Democracy all but won in 1876 with a Vice-Presidential candidate from Indiana, while in 1884 the party's most notable victory in a generation was attained under similar circumstances. But Mr. Kern is hardly a Hendricks, or even a William H. English.

A GOOD CAMPAIGNER.

So far as the strengthening of the ticket through the representation of rival wings of the party is concerned, Mr. Kern's candidacy, of course, does nothing of the sort, for, as is familiar enough to everybody, Kern is a dyed-in-the-wool Bryan man. He owes his nomination, in the final analysis, absolutely to his chief, and he represents no independent principles or body of men. The powers that be in the party's councils manifestly preferred this year to use the Vice-Presidency as an appeal to a geographical section rather than to a long disaffected branch of the party. The third requirement, however, Mr. Kern ought to be able to meet very satisfactorily. He is an excellent campaigner and, unless his somewhat frail physique should give way under the strain, may be depended upon to do valiant service in the field until November. He has stumped the State of Indiana repeatedly since he was twenty-one years of age, and, though he rarely got the desired results, nobody ever questioned his ability as an orator and exponent of political craft. Always aggressive, resourceful, and concilia-



Photographs Copyright, 1908, by Waldon Fawcett.

John W. Kern, Jr., age eight. Miss Julia Kern. William Kern, age five.

MR. KERN'S DAUGHTER AND SONS.

tory, he may be expected to carry upon the national stump much of the fascination and power that men have come to recognize in him in his own State.

NOT A MAN OF WEALTH.

The fourth qualification enumerated,—*i.e.*, the command of an abundance of cash and a willingness to put it freely at the disposal of the managers,—Mr. Kern simply does not possess at all. He is probably the poorest man in this world's goods that any leading political party has nominated for the Vice-Presidency in a generation. His "fortune" is estimated at about $25,000, and he has absolutely no affiliations from which the party managers can expect to realize a dollar that would not otherwise have been forthcoming. At a dinner given to Mr. Bryan last winter by the Indiana Democratic Club at the Claypool, in Indianapolis, the president of the club, in introducing Mr. Kern as toastmaster, predicted that the Indiana delegation would take him to the Denver convention and return with him as the Democratic nominee for the Vice-Presidency. Mr. Kern, in the course of his subsequent remarks, thanked the speaker for the compliment, but said that he did not expect the honor to come to him, and that, in any case, he was too poor to think of occupying the office, even if the people should demand his nomination. "Why," he declared, "if I should be sent to Washington I should have to live in one little room. I understand that it is costing Vice-President Fairbanks about $50,000 a year. At that rate, considering the state of my fortune, I could live in Washington about one day." When Mr. Bryan got up to speak he referred to Mr. Kern's remarks and said that if the people of this country demanded that Mr. Kern be their nominee he would have to serve. "And," continued Mr. Bryan, "if John is elected he need not live in one room. I will give him part of the White House." Should the Democrats win in November Indianians in Washington will expect to find the Vice-President quartered neither in the White House nor in a single little room; but they will be not a whit less proud of John Kern amid simpler surroundings than they have been of Mr. Fairbanks in the home of luxury to which his fortune entitles him.

MR. BRYAN'S CONVENTION.

BY SAMUEL E. MOFFETT.

THE United States consists of the Mississippi Valley with a fringe on each side. The political bearings of this fact were made manifest at Denver on July 7. The convention that began its sessions on that day was essentially a convention of the Mississippi Valley. In it the Mississippi Valley got what it wanted and the rest of the country acquiesced. There are two classes of Democrats who support Mr. Bryan,—those who want him and those who accept him because they have to. Those of the former class mostly inhabit the region drained by the Father of Waters. In New York, New England, and other outlying provinces the farsighted press is unable to conceal its astonishment that the Democratic party should be so stupid as to nominate a man whom no intelligent Democrats desire. But when one crosses the Alleghanies one discovers that Bryan has not been forced upon the party by some malign power outside of itself, but is its own unfettered choice. He suits the Mississippi Valley, and the Mississippi Valley has the votes to nominate and even, if it choose to disregard party lines, to elect him. Twelve years ago the shock of this discovery outraged the feelings of the Eastern delegates. They not only fought Bryan bitterly in the convention, but many of them bolted the ticket afterward. This year they have mastered the logic of facts. They did not kick against the pricks at Denver; most of them voted gracefully for Bryan on the first and only ballot, and all of them concurred loyally in his nomination,—even Colonel Guffey, still smarting from the salt rubbed into his wounds by the Committee on Credentials and the convention. For the first time in the history of American politics a great party has taken both of its candidates from the Mississippi Valley, put them on a Mississippi Valley platform, and laid out its plans of campaign with the avowed purpose of winning its battle in the Middle West.

PREDOMINANCE OF WEST AND SOUTH.

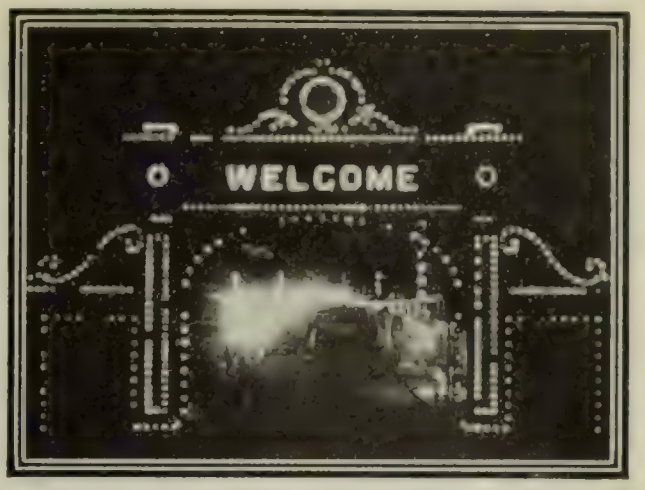
Of course the rest of the country was not ignored at Denver. Mr. Bryan was most deferential to New York, whose block of seventy-eight votes is impressive from mere size, even if it is a block of wood voted as a unit by Murphy and Conners. Mr. Bryan is a person of sanguine temperament, and he is not without hope of picking up electoral votes in New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut, notwithstanding the assurances of the metropolitan papers that he is wasting his time in looking in that direction. Nevertheless, he so far defers to their judgment as to base most of his calculations on the West. Both of the Democratic candidates live farther west than either of the Republican candidates. Now it so happens that if you leave out the Solid South, which belongs to Mr. Bryan in its entirety, the States west of Ohio have 165 electoral votes, and those eastward, including Ohio, West Virginia, and Delaware, have 159. It appears, therefore, that in undertaking to build up his majority in the West and South Mr. Bryan is not trying to make bricks without straw.

The Pacific Coast at Denver acted in cordial alliance with the Middle West and South, and the Southern and Western character of the gathering was conspicuous throughout the proceedings. Mr. Bell, of California, was temporary chairman of the convention, and Mr. Clayton, of Alabama, the permanent chairman. Governor Haskell, of Oklahoma, was chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, which framed the platform, and Oklahoma, Nebraska, and Kentucky did two-thirds of the talking in the convention.

DEMOCRACY'S LONG BANISHMENT FROM POWER.

The Chicago convention met with the prestige of fifteen years of continuous victory,—the longest period of uninterrupted party success in our history since the breakup of Jeffersonian Democracy under Monroe. Even in the period of Democratic eclipse in the Civil War and Reconstruction epochs it was only fourteen years from the election of Lincoln in 1860 to the Republican *débâcle* of 1874, and in the midst of that era of darkness there were years,

such as 1862 and 1870, when a return of sunshine for the Democracy seemed imminent. But from 1893 to the present time the blackness of the Democratic night has been unbroken. Nevertheless, such is the unconquerable tenacity of the party of Jefferson, the Denver convention was suffused with an air of cheerfulness and hope. To the men who met at Chicago victory had become a habit. They counted on it as a matter of course; yet even they felt some misgivings. They did their work like business men executing a contract, but not quite certain how it would turn out. At Denver the clans gathered with enthusiasm unquenched by adversity.



DENVER'S ARCH OF WELCOME.

DENVER'S GREAT OPPORTUNITY.

Perhaps their physical surroundings had something to do with their buoyancy of spirit. They were meeting a mile above the sea, in a town that was glad and proud to welcome them. Their coming was the great event of the year for Denver. Every delegation was met at the station and escorted to its hotel by a band. Walking information bureaus in uniform met every train for the benefit of ordinary visitors. Twenty thousand people, more or less, wore buttons inscribed: "I live in Denver. Ask me." There were circulating band concerts on the street cars every night. There were snowdrifts brought down from the mountains and heaped up in the July sun for the delectation of the city's guests, who were invited to join in snowball battles, and often found themselves in the line of fire when they might have been willing to forego the pleasure. The brilliant electric lighting system which leads Denver to call herself "the City of Lights" was utilized in producing miles of illuminations, and the streets, glittering with varicolored electric bulbs by night, were draped with artistically massed bunting by day. Cowboys, cowgirls, and Indians, especially provided and costumed for the occasion, paraded the streets on broncos. All that part of Denver which was not either in the Auditorium or camped around it in a besieging army eagerly hoping to get in was flowing slowly up and down the sidewalks in a viscid carnival mass. All this was such a contrast to Chicago, where the Coliseum and two or three hotels were the only places that gave any indication that a convention was in town, that it might well have sent the spirits of the delegates up a few points.

It was a more spontaneous gathering too, —one nearer to the soil and more easily



From *Collier's Weekly*.

MIDSUMMER SNOW BROUGHT FROM PIKE'S PEAK, TO THE AMAZEMENT OF EASTERN DELEGATES.



From Current's Weekly.

COOK COUNTY DEMOCRACY MARCHING THROUGH DENVER STREETS.

played upon in its emotions. The creases in the trousers at Chicago were more likely to have been artificially produced; those at Denver came oftener by nature from the shelves of rural "general stores." There was more sophistication at Chicago; more earnestness at Denver. Henry Cabot Lodge and Theodore E. Burton were the favorite orators at the Republican convention; Senator Gore and Ollie James, of Kentucky, set the oratorical pace at the Democratic.

SPONTANEITY ALTERNATED WITH "PERFUNCTORY LUNACY."

Perhaps it was the vigor that comes of nearness to the soil that made the Democrats at Denver push riotous demonstrations of enthusiasm to lengths that must surely bring about a change in future methods of expressing approval of candidates. On one occasion the Denver convention howled for Bryan for an hour and twenty-six minutes and a half without stopping for breath, and on another for an hour and ten minutes. Each of these demonstrations completely eclipsed anything in that line ever known at any previous gathering. The convention was not in session more than eighteen hours in all, and of that time three hours was occupied by three seasons of perfunctory lunacy. If every convention hereafter should think it necessary to break the records of



A SESSION OF THE DEMOCRATIC NATIONAL CONVENTION.

its predecessors in this respect, the time would obviously soon be at hand when nothing but howling could be done. The mere instinct of self-preservation, therefore, will seem to make it necessary before long to give the howling dervishes leave to print.

COMPLETENESS OF BRYAN'S TRIUMPH.

The situation at Denver with regard to candidates closely paralleled that at Chicago. In each case there was a favorite against a field. In each case the opponents of the favorite deluded themselves with false hopes. The "allies" at Chicago were a feeble folk, but they were a mighty host compared with the "allies" at Denver. As in 1896, the conservatives had suddenly waked up after about half the delegates had been elected, discovered that this was a Presidential year, and spasmodically resolved to do something. In 1896 they found that belated activity of this sort could not beat free silver, and in 1908 they found that it could not beat Bryan.



HON. HENRY D. CLAYTON, OF ALABAMA.
(Permanent chairman.)



HON. THEODORE A. BELL, OF CALIFORNIA.
(Temporary chairman.)

Mr. Bryan had begun his preparations for this convention immediately after the nomination of Parker in 1904. He had card-indexed the whole United States. He had correspondents everywhere, and for four years he had kept in continuous touch with the politics of every corner of the Union. He had lectured before Chautauqua assemblies on every circuit; he had sent his *Commoner* over all the rural delivery routes for 200 successive weeks, and all this he had done on top of a foundation of popularity such as no other Democrat had to begin with. And the conservatives expected to beat him by sending up a sudden cry of alarm in the spring of 1908, printing a few double-leaded panic editorials in New York papers, and inducing a few favorite sons to enlist the State pride of their neighbors in rival candidacies. As a matter of fact there were only two favorite sons whose booms ever got as far as Denver. Governor Johnson, of Minnesota, a politician of remarkable qualities who will be heard from again, polled the solid vote of his own State and got twenty-seven and a half scattering votes elsewhere. Judge Gray, of Delaware, got the solid votes of his own State and of New Jersey, and twenty-six scattering votes from three other States. The entire grand army of the "allies" polled 105½ votes. Bryan got 892½, or almost exactly nine-tenths of the entire convention. The Johnson and Gray



OLLIE D. JAMES, OF KENTUCKY.
(One of the oratorical stars at the convention.)

booms collapsed so completely that none of the orators who had been expected to second those nominations turned up, while State after State struggled for an opportunity to second the nomination of Bryan.

THOSE "OUTSIDE THE BREASTWORKS."

Although the general spirit of the body was undoubtedly sincere, indications were not lacking that it was composed of politicians; and that expediency sometimes counted for more than principle. The convention, directed by Mr. Bryan, was inflexibily stern toward Colonel Guffey, of Pennsylvania, where the Democrats got their last electoral votes in 1856, but gracious toward Sullivan, of Illinois, and Murphy and Conners, of New York, who leave at least as much to be desired in the matter of political morals. The noted McCarren was thrown out, not because he was unfit for decent men to associate with, but because Murphy wanted him out, and the equally noted Grady, McCarren's ally in every scheme at Albany, was honored with the chairmanship of an important committee and invited to address the convention. Grady mounted the platform and made a speech about harmony in the very face of a huge portrait of Grover Cleveland, who was once "loved for the enemies he had made," and who as Governor had asked John Kelly as his only favor that for his personal comfort Grady should be taken out of the State Senate.

THE "LABOR" PLANK A MASTERPIECE.

Some visitors went to Denver to play, but the men who built the platform had nothing but work. They worked for nearly sixty hours, although it had been said that Mr. Bryan had already prepared the document and sent it up from Lincoln to Denver ready for use. Some of Mr. Bryan's friends had been deeply impressed with the idea of having a platform that could be printed on a postal card. This plan was so nearly carried out that the Denver platform is only about twice as long as that adopted at Chicago and fills merely some five columns of close type. The chief difficulty in framing it was to satisfy labor without confirming moderate citizens in the belief that Bryan was a dangerous firebrand. The committee struggled over this problem, with the help of telephone suggestions from Lincoln, for over two days, but in the end its work was skillfully done. It began by salaaming to the courts, describing them as the bulwark of our liberties, and protesting that the Democracy



SENATOR GORE, OF OKLAHOMA.
(The blind orator who precipitated eighty-six minutes of tumultuous applause for Bryan.)



PROMINENT DEMOCRATS AT DENVER.

(Left to right John I. Martin, sergeant-at-arms; E. S. Johnson, South Dakota; Dr. Kahlo, French Lick, Ind., official physician; Jas. C. Dahlman, Nebraska; Thos. Taggart, Indiana; Roger Sullivan, Illinois; Urey Woodson, Kentucky; M. J. Wade, Iowa.)

yielded to none in its purpose to maintain their dignity. This and much more of the same sort tended to soothe the apprehensions of those who feared that any attempt to alter judicial procedure masked an attack on the courts. With deep respect the platform then ventured to suggest that experience had shown the necessity of modifying the present law relating to injunctions, and it repeated the approval already given in 1896 and 1904 of a bill which had previously passed the Senate relating to contempts in federal courts and providing for trial by jury in cases of indirect contempt. It suggested, too, that injunctions should not be issued in any case in which they would not issue if no industrial dispute were involved, and that labor organizations should not be regarded as illegal combinations in restraint of trade. It favored the eight-hour day on all Government work, pledged the Democratic party to a general federal employers' liability act, and promised the enactment of a law creating a Department of Labor, including the subject of mines and mining. These promises were embroidered with so much benevolent language that the labor plank alone would have filled two or three postal cards, but since it had the effect of captivating the previously critical Mr. Gompers and inducing him to pledge the bulk of the labor vote to the Democratic ticket, it may be considered well worth its space.

A BRYAN PLATFORM THROUGHOUT.

The tariff plank of the Democratic platform is much more definite and outspoken than that adopted at Chicago. The Republican platform promises revision; the Democratic demands reduction. On the currency question neither party has any very definite opinions. The Republicans are willing to leave it to the Monetary Commission to devise a satisfactory financial system. The Democrats are not sure whether an emergency currency is required, but think that if it is it should be issued and controlled by the Government, and lent on adequate securities to national and State banks. They promise, too, to compel the national banks to establish a guaranty fund for the protection of their depositors, with provision for the accession of any State banks that desire to join the system. This deposit-guaranty scheme of Mr. Bryan's has many friends in the West and South. It is in practical operation in Oklahoma, and some bankers who know the temper of their customers say that it is developing enormous popularity throughout the Central States.

Mr. Bryan's ancient Jeffersonian ideas about individual enterprise have been allowed free scope in the platform. In this respect he is not only a conservative, but a reactionary. He believes that it is possible and desirable to overthrow the modern organization of industry and restore the old system under which each town had its own little factory and the business dictionary still contained the word "competition." The platform declares a private monopoly to be "indefensible and intolerable"; it agrees with President Roosevelt in advocating a federal license system for corporations engaged in interstate commerce, provided they control as much as 25 per cent. of the products in which they deal, and it would forbid any such corporation to control more than 50 per cent. of the total amount of any product consumed in the United States. This would compel the United States Steel Corporation, the American Sugar Refining Company, the American Tobacco Company, the Standard Oil Company, and dozens of other corporations either to dissolve or to sell out a large part of their plants.

Although Captain Hobson was hooted down when he publicly predicted war with Japan, he exercised a deleterious influence upon the platform. It was largely through his efforts that a clause was inserted objecting to the admission of Asiatic immigrants. This was closely connected with the plank advocating an "adequate navy," "sufficient to defend the coasts of this country and protect American citizens wherever their rights may be in jeopardy."

The La Follette planks on the physical valuation of railroads, publicity for campaign contributions, and the election of United States Senators by the people, which the Wisconsin delegation vainly sought to force into the platform at Chicago, were enthusiastically adopted at Denver. Of course it is not expected that Mr. La Follette will be won over to the support of the Bryan ticket by the adoption of his platform, but his followers, who are not under his obligations in the matter of party loyalty, are expected to show considerable restiveness when their leaders ask them to vote against their own principles.

The national conventions of the two parties have taken on a curious tinge of nonpartisanship. Not only did the daughter of the President with her Republican husband attend both conventions and join in the applause at each, but Mr. John Barrett, the Director of the Bureau of American Republics, took a delegation of foreign diplomats first to Chicago and then to Denver, and succeeded in each place in procuring the insertion in the platform of a declaration in favor of closer relations with the countries of Latin-America.

THE VICE-PRESIDENTIAL NOMINATION.

The Denver convention missed a great opportunity in the nomination for Vice-President. Dozens of candidates were discussed during the week, almost always from the point of view of geography or of small political tactics. Just at the end it began to be realized that these were matters of little importance, and it was suggested that Governor Folk, of Missouri, although he lives next door to Mr. Bryan, would add more strength to the ticket than a smaller man who fulfilled the requirement of geographical remoteness. Governor Folk's name would have inspired the country, but the serious discussion of it came too late. The convention, with the assent of Mr. Bryan, nominated Mr. Kern, a good man, but as yet unknown outside of Indiana. There have been many worse Vice-Presidential candidates than Mr. Kern; there were many worse ones proposed at Denver, but the convention might have done considerably better.

MR. CLEVELAND AT PRINCETON.

BY HENRY VAN DYKE.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND was a man who ripened nobly, and the simplicity of his greatness was shown in his later years. To those of us who were close to him here, in his honorable retirement, after he had twice filled the most powerful and the most arduous office in the world, the vital thing about him was the genuineness of his manhood. His public life had not absorbed his private character. He was still himself: an individual, responsible to his God and to his fellow men for the best use of his faculties and his opportunities; ready to speak his honest mind to his neighbor and to give his true sympathy to his friend.

HIS HOUSEHOLD INTERESTS.

He accepted the conditions of human life with an admirable courage and good humor. There was no pretense and no illusion about him. He recognized the small details as well as the larger duties of existence. The change from the White House to the quiet estate of Westland must have been immense, but it did not disturb the fundamental largeness and steadiness of his nature. He neither fretted nor sulked in his tent. He gave a cheerful care to the affairs of his household, a ready response to the interests of the village and the university, and a great deal of earnest thought and conscientious labor to such public duties as came to him.

Some one asked him how he spent his time in Princeton. He answered with characteristic humor, "Well, I sit on the piazza a good deal, and herd the children." This was only one side of his life, of course, but it was a very beautiful one, and it revealed the man

> "Whose master-bias leans
> To home-felt pleasures and to gentle scenes."

Yet there was nothing of laziness or self-indulgence in it. At the time of the death of his oldest daughter Ruth, a lovable and gifted girl, it was my privilege to be close to him. The loss affected him profoundly, and I remember his saying very simply, after an expression of trust in the Divine wisdom, "I must find consolation for this in trying to do more work for my fellow men. I want to be more useful and to do as much as I can."

AS A WRITER.

There was once a rumor, started by some foolish person, that Mr. Cleveland did not prepare his own speeches and papers. Nothing could be farther from the truth. He prepared them immensely and intensely. No man knew better than he the danger of rash and exaggerated language. No man appreciated more fully the value and the power of the measured, direct, telling phrase. The knowledge that he had to make a public address at a certain time, at least in his later years, gave him at first a rather acute anxiety and discomfort. He was absurdly afraid of not doing the thing right. Then, as he toiled over it, the sense of what he really wanted to say, some large and simple thing that he thoroughly believed in, took possession of him and carried him along; and he uttered himself with a kind of serene earnestness and confidence that was convincing and uplifting to thoughtful hearers. But the point is that he did all his writing with his own pen, and his thinking with his own mind. I have seen many pages of that fine, firm, careful handwriting. It is as delicate as a woman's hand, but the vigor of a strong man, who knows what he intends, runs through every word and line.

A TRUE SPORTSMAN.

Mr. Cleveland's unaffected delight in out-of-door sports was very attractive to those of us who shared his tastes in this direction. He was sincerely fond of fishing and shooting as pastimes, and he liked to take them in a plain, old-fashioned way. It never occurred to him to question the rightness of this method of getting wholesome recreation and good food at the same time; and his pleasure was never spoiled by the feverish ambition to break the record. He was not a paper sportsman, but a real one. He liked to be out in the open, in the woods, or on the water; the game, however small, was only the excuse; but he liked that too.

I never heard him tell a very big fish-story, but I have heard him tell a great many amusing ones.

He had a wholesome sense of humor, and in times of pressure and perplexity it served him as a means of grace. He was full of entertaining anecdotes,—not those which go the rounds of the newspapers,—and he told them with touches of excellent imitation and dialect, which showed how keenly he observed and understood men.

AS A COLLEGE TRUSTEE.

In the affairs of Princeton University he rendered an invaluable service. Not a college man himself, he was broad-minded enough to recognize the worth of the right kind of college education in the all-round development of American manhood. He stood for thoroughness and simplicity in teaching, for democracy and self-government in student life. He seemed to have "the Princeton spirit" by instinct. As a trustee he brought to the councils of the university a straightforward common-sense; a knowledge of human nature and practical affairs; and a firm conviction that the two things which count for most in the academic world are fine and steady teaching in the classrooms and a well-developed sense of honor among the students. He was modest in regard to his judgment in questions of the curriculum, but about the other things, the fundamental things, he never doubted or wavered. This made him a tower of strength; and the loss of his unassuming counsel, always sane and candid and loyal, going directly to the main point at issue, refreshing and invigorating as a breath of pure air, will be deeply felt by every Princeton man.

TRUST IN HUMAN NATURE.

Looking back over a friendship of many years, I see more clearly than ever before two things that were characteristic of Mr. Cleveland. In his attitude toward human nature there was a keen perception of its weakness and limitation, combined with a firm faith in the gradual and ultimate triumph of its nobler qualities. This made him, in the broad sense of the word, a democrat, but not an obstreperous and flamboyant one,—a steady and hopeful democrat. "You can trust the best judgment of the rank and file," he said, "but you can't always reach it in a hurry." And again: "The best part of every man ought to rule, and when you can get that all together you have the real voice of the people. That is what education is for,—to bring the best part to the front."

REVERENCE FOR LAW.

The second thing that was characteristic of him was his attitude toward the law. He did not want overmuch of it, but he wanted it to be profoundly respected and fearlessly enforced. He had a sincere mistrust of excessive legislation. The hope of bringing the millennium by statute was one that he did not share. But for the law as established, and for the safeguards which it offers to common rights of person and property, he had a very holy reverence. Conscience and courage both entered into this feeling. It came out again and again in his public acts and utterances. It shone also in his private conversation and in the whole bearing of the man.

He had that kind of genius which consists in the application of large ideas to everyday problems. He illuminated important questions with homely illustrations. I remember his beginning a discourse on the Venezuela boundary dispute with a reference to a quarrel between two farmers about a line-fence. Before he had finished that homespun figure of speech he had made every one see the real reason and justification of an act of American statesmanship which Wall Street cursed for a fortnight, but which the world at large has approved ever since.

THE BEST OF HUMAN QUALITIES.

It seems to me that Grover Cleveland will take his place among the great Presidents of the United States. But his greatness did not consist in the possession of extraordinary qualities. He was great because he had the best qualities of common manhood to an extraordinary degree. He represented the best type of a plain American man raised to the *N*th power.

His friendship, to which he admitted younger men with such a hearty and natural sympathy, was frank, generous, and steadfast. The whole man went into it. Those who knew him thus will always remember him, not as a personage, but as a splendidly real and satisfying personality of native growth.



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EX-PRESIDENT GROVER CLEVELAND, AT HIS PRINCETON HOME.

GROVER CLEVELAND AS A PUBLIC MAN.

BY ST. CLAIR McKELWAY.

[Few men in the country are as well qualified to write of Mr. Cleveland's public career as Mr. McKelway, the brilliant editor of the Brooklyn *Eagle*. The following characterization, prepared by him for his newspaper, is here printed with his approval as the statement which he would make to the more widely distributed body of readers of this REVIEW. — THE EDITOR.]

GROVER CLEVELAND, who died in Princeton on June 24, at twenty minutes before nine, was twice President of the United States. He was three times a nominee for the office. He received each one of the three times more votes than his opponent. Once, however, in 1888, the Electoral College chose his opponent, voting as it does by States, and not by popular suffrage, under the mandate of the Constitution. The citizen who became President, instead of Mr. Cleveland, in 1889, was the late Benjamin Harrison. Mr. Cleveland's third canvass and second election in 1892 involved the defeat of Mr. Harrison, who had been renominated by his party. Mr. Cleveland took part in the funerals of Grant, Hayes, Garfield, Arthur, and Harrison, who had been Presidents in his lifetime. With him the list of ex-Presidents ends.

Before he became President Mr. Cleveland was Governor of New York, and while Governor he was chosen to the Presidency. Before he was Governor he was Mayor of Buffalo, and while Mayor he was chosen to the governorship. Thus he directly stepped from the mayoralty into the governorship and from the governorship into his first Presidency. Before he was Mayor he was Sheriff of Erie County, but several years elapsed between the shrievalty and the mayoralty, and between his two Presidencies four years, the term of Benjamin Harrison, intervened.

Mr. Cleveland was elected Sheriff to restore to public respect an office that had fallen into corruption by a conspiracy of interest and purpose between the leaders of both parties in Erie County. He was named by his own party to be defeated. But he beat its leaders and he beat his opponent by his declaration to all the people of the county that he desired and intended to be elected for the purpose of cleaning out the confederated gangs which controlled both party organizations. The stamp he left upon the administration of the office was not easily or soon effaced. Years after, while practicing law, he was nominated for Mayor, and elected on the promise of trying to do for the city of Buffalo what he had said he would do and had done for the people as Sheriff of Erie County. In the mayoralty he kept his promise and exceeded expectation to such a degree that he was made Governor of New York to undertake for the State what he had undertaken for the city of Buffalo,—though on a manifestly larger scale.

In the governorship, for two years of the three which were then the term, Mr. Cleveland commanded national attention and admiration. He was elected to the Presidency of the United States in 1884. A year of his governorship remained, and in that year the Lieutenant-Governor, David B. Hill, succeeded him. It is worth while to recall that as Mr. Cleveland was chosen to the shrievalty to end gang rule, and to the mayoralty for the same purpose, so his election to the governorship came to him at a time when the opposing party had abused the confidence of the people, and by its own factionalism and worse had forfeited its right to public respect.

Mr. Garfield was elected in 1880 by a pact of interest and of promise between theretofore contending factions. The factions did not keep the peace. Garfield was assassinated and Arthur acceded to the Presidency. In 1882 the nomination of Folger for Governor of New York by federal machine influence in the State convention was stained by forgery and perjury for which neither Arthur nor Folger was responsible, but of which the latter became the beneficiary,—and the victim. Grover Cleveland was nominated for Governor because he had been a great Mayor, and he was nominated for President because he was making a great Governor. The folly of one party was the opportunity of the other, and to the support of that other which was lifted to its opportunity by great leaders who discerned and obeyed public opinion, independent men of all parties gratefully contributed their votes.

It would not be true to say that Mr.



Photograph by Pach Bros., N. Y.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND IN HIS SECOND TERM.

Cleveland's own party rose to his level when it nominated him for Governor and for President. It did not rise to his level, but, as said, it was lifted to his level by managers of intelligence, of power, of courage, of integrity, and of vision. In 1888 the gravitation of power itself accomplished and the demand of the masses prescribed Mr. Cleveland's second nomination, but in 1892 his third nomination was not reached without a contest within his party. The progressive forces in 1892 overcame the retrogressive. The latter had united corruption with conservatism, as it was miscalled, but did so in vain. The Democratic people threw down the Democratic machines, and the most enlightened leaders of Democracy in private life again took charge of the Democratic populace and beat the Democratic machines in the Democratic National Convention.

The nomination in 1892 touched the high-water mark of honesty, courage, intelligence, and virtue in American Democracy. Mr. Cleveland's own letters and own action upon public duties in President Harrison's period of service recalled him to Democratic leader-

ship by an irresistible mandate of the Democratic masses. He was overwhelmingly elected. His party, however, did not measure up to his standards. The leaders fell away from his ideals. He himself was morally incapable of the arts or the artifices to allure them to his side. There were those who thought it had been well could he have done so without a sacrifice of any of his sturdy qualities, but he was not built that way and did not do so. The Democracy soon went on the line of its bad to its worse. Mr. Cleveland stood on his line of stern integrity, and left the Presidency in 1897 with unassailable honor, assured of the vindication of time and confident of the approbation of all his countrymen, before the time would be long.

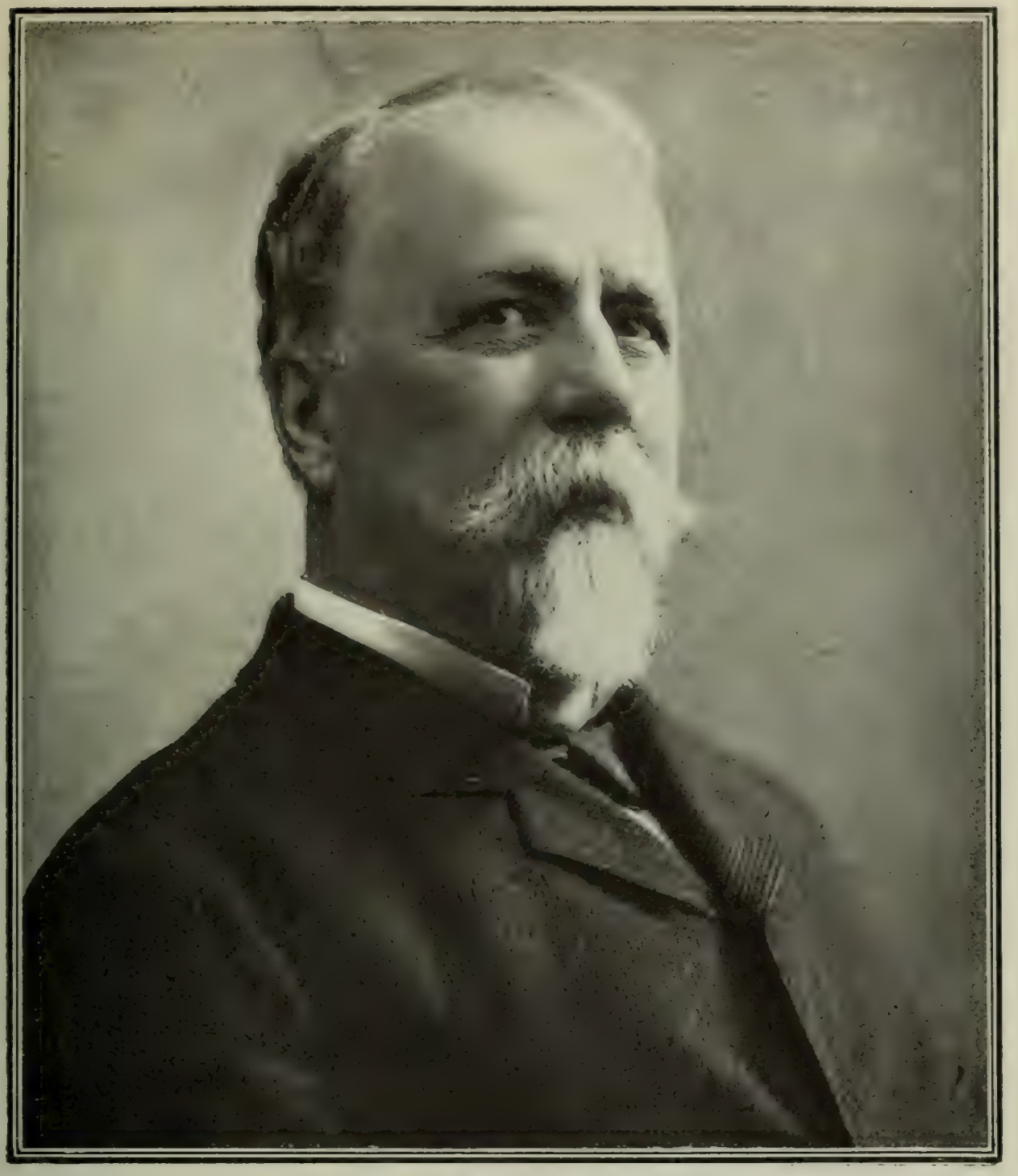
The gravest offense Mr. Cleveland gave to the spoilsmen of his party was inflicted on them in the beginning of his first Presidency. He refused to displace Republican officials with Democratic appointees till the terms of the former had expired. The practice he then resumed has been in the main since respected; but it rebegan, in modern times, with him, and when he restored the course of George Washington and of John Adams he reversed that of Thomas Jefferson and of Andrew Jackson, the gods of Democratic idolatry. By doing so he wrote his name above both in the world's annals of moral justice and of moral courage among rulers. It has been easier to follow his course than it was for him to reinitiate it. The spoilsmen of Democracy never forgave him, but the freemen of Democracy twice sustained him at the polls, and none of his enemies in Democracy has been elected President since!

Mr. Cleveland, first among any American Presidents, made the Monroe Doctrine, as it is called, a fact alive, to be recognized as a fact, though not officially, by the government of Great Britain. Officially mattered little. Actually, factually, mattered much. The long coquetry between American administrations and British administrations had only comprised the playful throwing of grass and disclaimers. President Cleveland forced a recourse to arbitration by Great Britain and Venezuela, by which the power, the right, and the recognition of the United States as a third party, in high and equal interest, were regarded. The territorial integrity and immunity of this continent were assured. The fact of this Republic, as the predominant partner among and over other American governments, was impressed, and while not officially admitted has always unofficially been admitted. From that has flowed the Pan-American alliance, with all its complimentary, diplomatic, sentimental, and spectacular consequences.

The battle for honest money was fought and won by Grover Cleveland when his administration forced the repeal of the silver-purchase clause of the Resumption act. Thereafter, in all the elections of the American people, honest money, gold currency, won. The time-servers of each party were beaten by the union of the honest and foreseeing men in both. Neither total nor partial repudiation has had a chance since. Some of its former friends have ever since been declaring they never knew it. Solvency and honesty were menaced before Mr. Cleveland aroused the conscience and interest of the people, but his appeal for them to the people saved solvency and honesty and forever insured them against attack again.

We have been at pains to show that the course of Grover Cleveland was impartially due to Republican errors and Republican divisions, and to a pressure of exigency and duty upon Democratic opportunity. We may expect that both parties will yet admit this without dissent. Both in their hearts recognize that the qualities dominant in Grover Cleveland were the ones that should be dominant in every President. It matters little with what lesser but worthy qualities Presidents be associated. Washington was not more brave or more single-minded than Cleveland, though he was more reserved and more patient. Lincoln was not more inflexibly devoted to long purpose and to stern principle than Cleveland, though he was more tactful, more patient, but not more philosophical. With both, in the root qualities of integrity and intrepidity, Cleveland will be rated in history, however differentiated from them and from others in minor respects he should be.

This statement may not for a while be accepted by those mentally or morally too small to assimilate it; but it is now certain soon to be the conclusion of those who see as well as feel the future in the instant and the thinking of whom anticipates, prescribes, embodies, and dominates the thinking of the future. It is already the conclusion of the sentient and the wise among Americans. It is already the agreement of living thoughtful foreigners whose contemporary conclusions are proverbially and invariably the verdict of posterity.



THE LATE MURAT HALSTEAD.

A GREAT AMERICAN JOURNALIST.

THE absence of Mr. Halstead from the platform at Chicago in June was observed and mentioned by many who have been accustomed to attend national Republican conventions. He had been prominent in these gatherings since 1856; and his personality was so distinguished that, without any thought of making himself prominent, his face and figure were undoubtedly the best-known and most familiar of any among the leaders that the Republican hosts were able to recognize. For a year or more he had been in failing health at his Cincinnati home, and on July 2 he passed away.

Murat Halstead was born near Cincinnati, Ohio, almost seventy-nine years ago, his grandfather having settled there at the opening of the last century. While attending a local college in the outskirts of Cincinnati he showed marked talent as a writer; and his

contributions to the Cincinnati newspapers had so paved the way for immediate journalistic employment that he found himself at once embarked upon a career which was destined to make him a national figure, and to keep his pen incessantly busy for more than fifty years.

He was always a man of courage and of strong opinions, and the outbreak of the Civil War found him for the Union with all his energies. He had become the principal writer and also a part owner of the Cincinnati *Commercial,* and was making it one of the most notable political and literary influences of the country. He was not only a powerful and original editorial writer, but also a descriptive writer of talent and charm. During the Civil War he was at the front on various occasions, attracting the attention of the whole country by his skill as a war correspondent. After the war he came into full editorship and financial control of the *Commercial,* and was everywhere recognized as one of the most successful editors the United States had produced. He added to his fame as a writer and a student of military affairs by joining the headquarters of the German army in the Franco-Prussian War.

In 1872 he was one of the little group of strong Republican editors who opposed the renomination of President Grant and supported Horace Greeley. He was a constant and prolific writer for the editorial page of his own paper, and was in the habit of staying at his office at night until the paper had actually gone to press. He was a hard fighter for what he believed to be right, and through a long period of laxity and corruption in political life he was never complacent toward improper methods.

One of Mr. Halstead's later experiences illustrated the obvious truth that the journalist who deals courageously with political conditions must not expect to become an officeholder. Mr. Halstead was appointed Minister to Germany by President Harrison in 1889, and was eminently qualified to represent us with grace and distinction at the German court. But the Senate refused to confirm the appointment. This refusal was due to the fact that Mr. Halstead had unsparingly attacked the corrupt methods by which the election of certain members of the United States Senate had been procured. The refusal to confirm him was intended by the Senate for punishment, and for a notice to other honest and powerful editors that they must not expect to be forgiven by the beneficiaries of rascality that they have exposed. Since there was never the slightest confusion in the public mind as to the reason for the Senate's refusal to confirm Mr. Halstead, and since no one for a moment in the Senate or out of it questioned his personal fitness for the post to which President Harrison had appointed him, the chief importance of the episode lies in the way in which it illustrates creditable phases in the history of American journalism and discreditable phases in the history of the United States Senate.

Mr. Halstead, like Horace Greeley, was an exceedingly energetic and enterprising newspaper man, with a talent for news and for timeliness, and a catholicity of taste and culture, which gave his paper a broad relation to human activities of various kinds and to the intellectual progress of the American people. But for the journalism of scandal and sensation, with no motives except those of the counting-room, Mr. Halstead had no talents; and when the new type of sensational journalism, backed by unlimited capital, came into vogue, Cincinnati was not a large enough field to permit the success of both kinds of newspaper side by side. If Cincinnati had grown as Chicago grew, Mr. Halstead's *Commercial* would have held its own like Mr. Medill's Chicago *Tribune.*

In his later years Mr. Halstead gave evidence of his great physical and mental vitality by writing a number of books, which were sold successfully by subscription throughout the country, on subjects and personalities of contemporary interest. While journalistic in method, these books were written with all of Mr. Halstead's wonderful power of concentration and intense interest in whatever he had in hand. There was the spirit of hope and courage in all his work, and an optimism based upon his lifelong adherence to sound principles and standards in public as well as in private life.

Mr. and Mrs. Halstead had only recently celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of their marriage. His last year was saddened by the death of his eldest son, Marshall Halstead, who had also achieved success and reputation as a journalist and a man of affairs. Four of Mr. Halstead's sons were at one time students at Princeton, and six sons and three daughters still survive. To few men is it given to work so long and so usefully in a congenial field of activity, to be so fortunate in personal relationships, and to hold in so full a sense the esteem of neighbors and fellow-citizens.

WHAT ARE THE JAPANESE DOING IN FORMOSA?

BY WILLIAM C. GREGG.

[Mr. Gregg is an American business man who has spent some time in Formosa and has been interested in observing Japan's colonial experiment in that island.—THE EDITOR.]

THE island of Formosa is just off the coast of China, about fifty miles wide and 240 miles long. It lies a little north of the Philippines. Here, as a result of the war with China, the Japanese, in 1895, became the rulers over 3,000,000 Chinese, who had been there between two and three centuries, and perhaps 100,000 savages, called "Head Hunters," who had been there much longer. The Chinese occupy the western half of the island, which is generally very level; the savages the eastern half, a very rough, mountainous region, with several peaks reaching a height of 12,000 feet. Between these two peoples there has been constant warfare. The savages originally occupied the plains also, but were driven to the shelter of the mountains, where their smaller numbers could hold the Mongolian hordes in check. They are as savage and warlike as ever, and are much feared by all.

The Japanese found the Formosans (Chinese) in a pitiable condition. They came originally from the vicinity of Amoy, where some of the poorest people are to be found in all China. They were ignorant, suspicious, bigoted, emaciated, impoverished, dirty, and diseased. About 90 per cent. were illiterate; all were underfed. The tax-gatherers had taken everything but skin, bone, and filth. The amount of disease, especially sore eyes, is still appalling. With the suspicion that grew out of such conditions, added to the natural stubbornness and bigotry of the Chinese, we can understand that instead of welcoming the Japanese, as the Spanish did the American army in Porto Rico, they gave them some weeks of hard fighting, accompanied by rioting and looting among themselves, all after Formosa had been regularly "ceded" to Japan.



GOVERNOR-GENERAL T. IWAI.

(The Formosan head of the Imperial Japanese Government.)

FORMER CHINESE MISGOVERNMENT.

In bringing order out of chaos the Japanese wisely dropped the former Chinese officials. Their ingenuity in extorting money out of the people had been truly devilish. I have room for only one illustration of their methods: Suppose three men had been condemned to death after trials that would have acquitted them had enough money been forthcoming; the relatives of the first man to go to the block raised enough funds to satisfy the executioner, and he was dispatched with one stroke of the sword. The friends of the second did something, but not enough to meet the demands of this captain of finance, so several cuts were necessary to finish No. 2. The third was a bankrupt, with no friends in sight,—the other officials probably had taken all he had,—so the executioner, to get even for the loss of his tip, and as a warning to others, cut off his eyelids and exposed him to the glaring sun for hours before finally finishing him with other brutalities! Hard to believe? Yes, but it is only a striking case out of a general condition of official depravity. Small wonder that when turned out of office, judges and jailers, along with magistrates, "joined the opposition," and became insurrection leaders. Strange but true that many people followed their leadership, a more or less active rebellion being maintained against the Japanese for five years. This delayed and often defeated entirely the governmental plans of the new rulers. About seven years ago armed oppo-



GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION BUILDING AT TAIHOKU.
(A good example of Japanese work.)

sition ceased, and the real work of reform began.

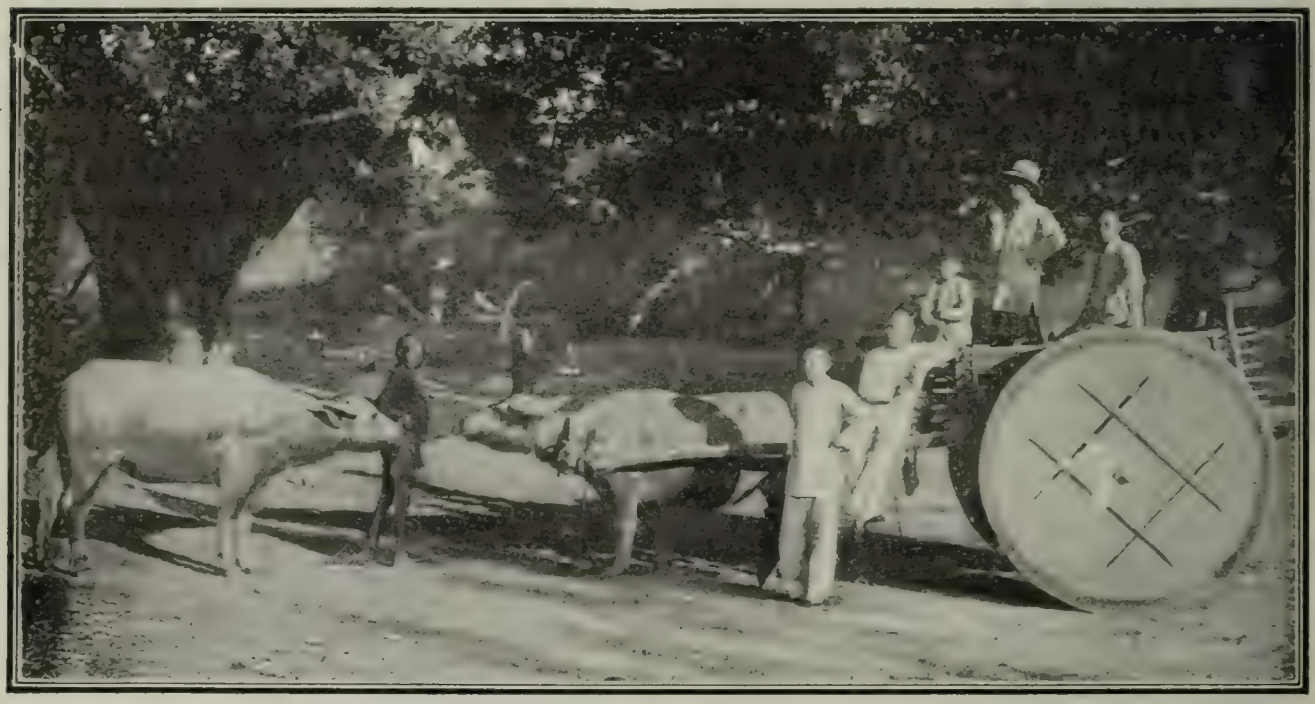
THE NEW JAPANESE REGIME.

My first question was: How many Japanese are here in Formosa? I was answered: "About 100,000." To verify this, and to find out what they were doing, was my constant endeavor, and my conclusion is that the number is fairly stated. As the island will easily support double the present population, there need be no overcrowding for years to come.

The price of Chinese labor in Formosa has increased fully 50 per cent., but is not yet up to the labor standard in Japan; so the Japanese do not try to compete, but confine themselves to keeping stores, hotels, bath-houses, etc., acting as foremen or superintendents of new enterprises, doing the work of skilled mechanics, engineers, and teachers. No Chinaman can come to Formosa from the mainland without a passport, which you may be sure is carefully scrutinized. The number entitled to enter probably does not exceed the number who leave.

While the Japanese Government employs its own people in most responsible positions, it also employs a surprising number of Chinese. The ticket-sellers, gate-keepers, and guards on the government railway seem to be all Chinese; the engineers and head mechanics are undoubtedly Japanese. I think I am safe in saying that four-fifths of all the railway employees are Chinese, who also do all the common labor in other government enterprises. I found in every city or town of any consequence one Japanese street, a model of taste and cleanliness, for all to look at, if not to imitate at once.

The first change in the condition of the Formosan people was their fuller employment, which was in itself a "raise." Then the actual advance in wages began. I now find their average pay fully one-half more than the same class of people are getting over on the mainland of China, bringing the



THE FORMOSA ANIMAL VEHICLE.
(This cart is made of wood only; not even a screw or bolt can be found in it; no metal tires are used on the wheels.)

wages of a man from 13 cents to 20 cents (gold) a day, women and children lower in proportion. An English missionary, long a resident of the island, rather reluctantly admitted to me, although not a bit enthusiastic about Japanese rule, that the people generally now eat three meals a day. We can readily understand that at the former rate of wages and with fewer employed it was *not* three meals a day.

Justice, the first essential to normal community life, has been established at last; but we need not be surprised if the Chinese sometimes kick at justice itself and sigh for the good old rotten days.

There are now eight ordinary courts and one court of appeals, presided over by Japanese judges, appointed by the imperial government. The important fact about the present courts of Formosa is not the nationality of the judges, but that justice itself for the first time in its history is obtainable by the poorest coolie.

SCHOOL SYSTEMS, PAST AND PRESENT.

Schools have been built and equipped by the Japanese with the same combination of sense and enthusiasm that has actuated the Americans in Porto Rico and the Philippines. There are to-day 165 common-schools for Chinese boys and girls, half the teachers being Chinese and half Japanese, and fifteen similar schools for half-civilized mountain tribes. Twenty-four also are opened for Japanese boys and girls, whose education alone as yet is compulsory. Chinese children are admitted to these schools if clean and free from disease. There are also one high school for girls only, one high school for boys only, one normal school for teachers, one medical school, two agricultural schools, and one police school.

This looks like work, not exploitation!

We need only remember our own efforts at education in our dependencies to appreciate the spirit of real helpfulness that has characterized this Japanese labor in Formosa.

The Chinese still maintain over 1000 small private schools, where old ideas, now being abandoned on the mainland, are still taught, no doubt partly out of stubborn opposition to Japan.

It is the plan to supplant gradually these schools of ancient fogyism with modern ones, but, as usual, the Japanese will not move in a compulsory way. I said to a Japanese Christian preacher: "How about religious freedom in Formosa?" He replied: "Entirely free; perhaps too free, for I believe just a little persecution, or at least opposition, would stir us up."



A FORMOSAN GIRL.
(She shows a mixture of the Chinese and Malayan races.)

PUBLIC IMPROVEMENTS.

The Chinese had constructed forty miles of very inferior railroad, which was entirely rebuilt, and 220 miles has been added. All is now in first-class condition, with good rolling-stock, good stations, frequent train service, and moderate fares. I rode over the entire system, and was struck with the substantial character of everything, especially the tunnels and bridges.

There is now under construction sixty miles more on the East Coast. The standard railway gauge for both Formosa and Japan is forty-two inches, just fourteen and one-half inches narrower than the American and European general standard.

Barracks and police stations have been erected wherever needed. Post-offices, telegraph and telephone systems are to be found everywhere, and some cities have electric lights. Fine parks and numerous small gar-



A CHINESE SUGAR-MILL GRINDING CANE.

(See the Japanese substitute at bottom of this page. These small mills are very wasteful and produce poor sugar.)

dens have been provided in the cities. Whenever a fire consumes many buildings in any place, the question of widening the street seems to be the first thing considered. It is generally accomplished. Open concrete sewers, frequently flushed, have been installed in all towns of any size. Regular modern water-works are now found in three of the largest cities. A first-class wagon road, 300 miles in extent, has been built from north to south through the entire length of the island, and over 4000 miles of other roads, with over 3000 bridges, make a very substantial total. Harbors, breakwaters, docks, and lighthouses have all been completed, or are in process of being built, where there was nothing before but danger, delay, and shipwreck. The government has built a model tea-farm and an experimental cane-growing station, along with the department of encouragement and subsidy to Chinese farmers to improve their methods of fertilization and cultivation.

It is hard to realize that twelve years ago all of these improvements were undreamed of, and that such a spirit of progress was so persistently opposed, even with rebellion, for five years. We could more readily understand the mental attitude of the Chinese if they had been taxed for anything and the benefits turned over to the Japanese; but a substantial part of the money was paid out of the imperial treasury, and the bulk of the expenditures went direct to the Chinese for labor.

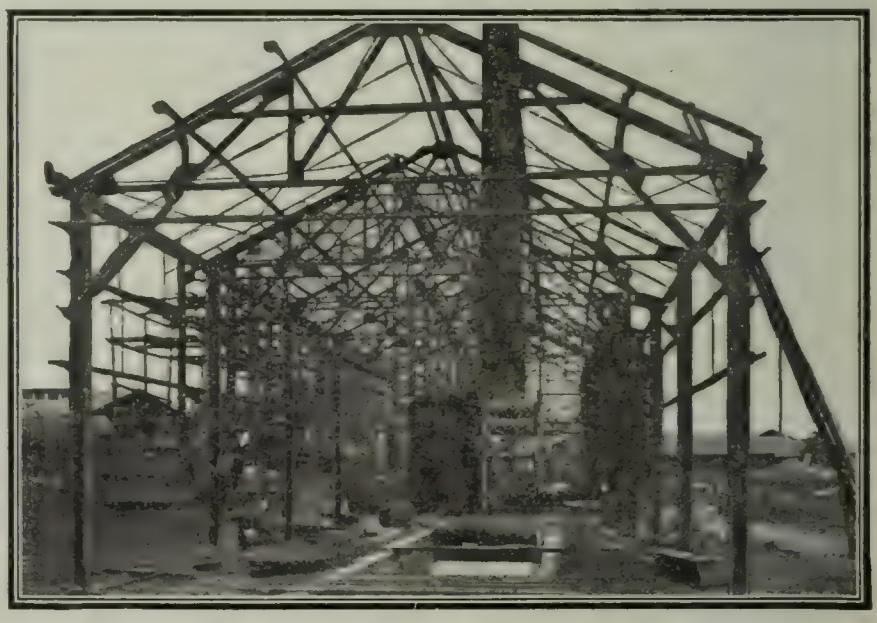
POLICE AND MILITARY.

There are on the island 5000 police, two-thirds of whom are Japanese; 6000 Japanese soldiers on the plains, and 6000 Chinese soldiers in the mountains.

The police are paid by local tax; the soldiers by the imperial government. Evidently they still fear to have Chinese soldiers on the plains, but are willing to let them fight their old enemies, the "Head Hunters," in the rough country. The Chinese soldiers are officered and led by the Japanese. I learned that it is necessary to have a goodly proportion of Japanese police in the cities and towns, for whenever the Japanese are involved in any affair requiring police control they will not pay any attention to a Chinese officer.

LAND AND TAX REFORMS.

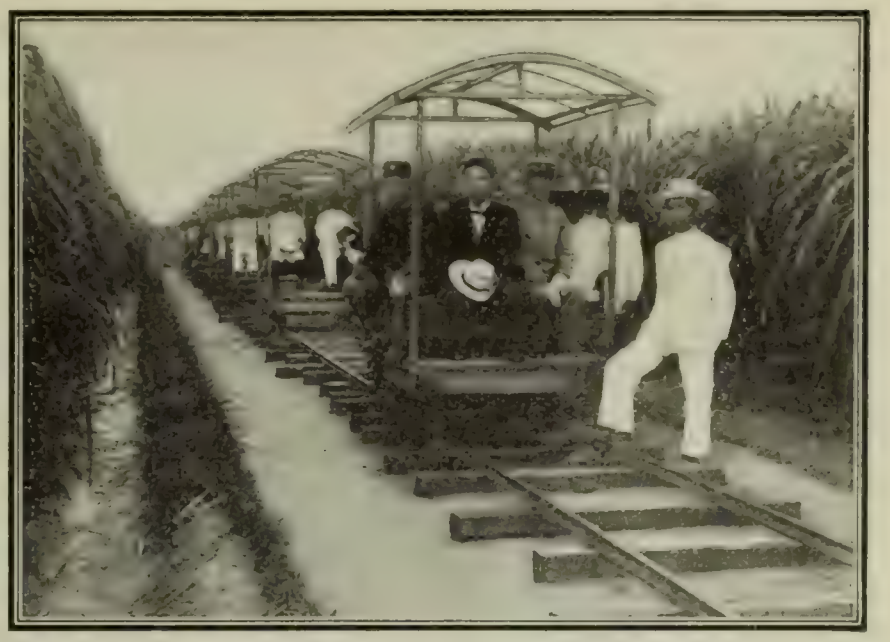
The driest part of this subject is in the title. Our Japanese friends found a regular Irish land question dished up to them red hot and garnished with uncertain boundaries and double ownership. It is easy for me to record that they solved it by the government buying the landlords' titles and establishing the renter as owner. But this is more than England has ever been able to do with her Ireland, although she has muddled over the matter, lo, these many years.



A NEW SUGAR-MILL BEING ERECTED BY A JAPANESE COMPANY.

(Ten such plants are in process of construction at present. No free American market stimulates the business. They expect to compete with the world for Asiatic trade.)

It cost Japan over $2,000,000 to make an accurate survey of all the land (on the plains) and to make complete maps showing every irregular plot, no matter how small. Nothing but a personal view of the little garden patches cultivated by these people, with not a square corner in the entire crazy patchwork map, could give you an adequate conception of the magnitude of the undertaking. The surveyors and map-makers were all Japanese, of course. The government on bringing them over required that they should save part of their wages, as I understand, partly to prevent even mild dissipation and possible trouble with the Chinese. When through with their work they were at once returned to Japan.



FORMOSA PUSH CARS.

(There are many private lines of light railroad where both freight and passengers are *pushed* by coolies. The cars are four feet square and contain only one seat, which is easily removed when freight is transported. There are few switches; when cars meet in opposite directions one car is lifted off the track.)

This land reform was not philanthropic; the government now gets the tax,—formerly paid by the renter to the landlord,—which more than pays the interest on the bonds issued to carry through the reorganization. The whole thing was a combination of reform and good business management.

But how about taxes? Well, this is no fairy tale! With exports and imports doubled, land values doubled, actual volume of earned wages doubled, and with such a great accumulation of improvements, we might expect to find taxes doubled also. But taxation, although increased, is not that bad.

Governor-General Iwai tells me that formerly the Chinese paid their tax-gatherers irregular amounts, aggregating $6,000,000 to $8,000,000 a year, only $3,000,000 of which really reached the government treasury. The present general tax aggregates about $8,000,000, with added special local taxes of $2,500,000 more.

Formosa is now practically self-supporting; but for several years the imperial government made up deficiencies totaling $15,000,000, exclusive of all military expenditures. It has made investments also in connection with its monopolies, the amount of which I am unable to state, but large enough, perhaps, to affect even Japanese imperial finances appreciably.

GOVERNMENT MONOPOLIES.

Both in Japan and Formosa the imperial government is doing what has been done by the American trusts,—*i. e.,* monopolizing some of the leading lines of trade. Tobacco, salt, camphor, and opium, in addition to the railroads, telegraph and telephone lines, are thus operated. The total Formosan income from these enterprises in 1907 was about $8,000,000. But it cannot be called a tax, as the business seems to have been conducted on the average more in the interest of the inhabitants than it would have been in the hands of Japanese or Chinese capitalists.

THE CAMPHOR PRODUCT.

Formosa is the world's chief producer of camphor. It is distilled from the wood or chips of the camphor trees, which grow to a magnificent size, some measuring forty feet in circumference. Formosa has about 1500 square miles of trees, which should supply the natural wants of the world for from sixty to seventy-five years. They are reforesting the places which have been denuded. The price of camphor in Formosa in 1875 was 6 cents a pound; now it is 50 cents a pound. The Japanese Government derives an annual profit of about $1,000,000 from this monopoly.

The love of gain took the Chinese many years ago to the mountain districts after



A RAILROAD PASSENGER STATION.

camphor, although they lost many heads to the "Head Hunter" savages who lived there. Time has changed many political conditions, but the "Head Hunters" are still hostile, and strong Japanese guards are needed to protect camphor extractors. Only on the outskirts of the mountains do the Japanese pretend to exert governmental authority. The savages, because of their fighting powers and the rough country, are not subject, but independent.

Only enough camphor is produced each year to meet the market demands without endangering the stability of the government price.

PROFITS FROM THE OPIUM TRADE.

I think it is a mistake for the government to add its profits from opium to the general



A GROUP OF "HEAD HUNTERS."

(Malayan savages who occupy the mountain districts and make war on all intruders.)



BRIDGE AND TUNNEL ON MAIN LINE OF RAILROAD.

(Until this last link is completed all traffic on the main line moves around this obstruction on ten miles of push-car track.)

revenues. It makes about $500,000 a year out of it. No doubt the first motive was to restrict and finally to abolish the devilish habit; but as long as these profits can be used by a financially hard-pressed imperial administration it will continue to take an unholy interest in the business.

Let the entire profits be devoted to hospitals and medical schools, all sorely needed, and I shall believe that the original plan to obliterate the opium evil will the sooner be carried out. Every smoker is licensed. It is against the law to lend or give away opium. The number of licenses is, I understand, decreasing. The penalties for violating the law's restrictions are fines of $1500 to $2500 and imprisonment from three to five years. I believe the law is fairly well enforced, always keeping in mind the patience of Japanese officials, sometimes phenomenal.

JAPANESE AIMS IN FORMOSA.

Who could have done as well for Formosa in this short time? The Japanese deserve full credit, for they have spent heart, brain, muscle, and money to make a pleasing, prosperous community out of a sad bit of desolate anarchy. Their object is not only to make a rich colony for their own profit,—a perfectly legitimate scheme as long as the colony profits too,—but to make a name for themselves to be honored by all nations for fair dealing and achievement in civilization. They have the patience to deal with stubborn problems. If they have also patience under unfair criticism, and if they can hold true to the ideals they have so successfully pursued in Formosa, who shall say that they will not be also a blessing to Korea and achieve there at least as great results?

GUATEMALA'S TRANSCONTINENTAL ROUTE.

BY M. A. HAYS.

AT Guatemala City, recently, there was a fiesta which thrilled the people of the principal republic of Central America, both from its character and the event it celebrated. There were magnificent street decorations, triumphal arches and booths representing nearly every municipal department of the country, floral displays, military and civil parades, a vast gathering of people from every section of the nation, including about 5000 Indians in their native costumes, illuminations, banquets, speeches, a beauty contest; all manner of music, bull fights and other amusements, school festivals, the entertainment of distinguished visitors, including a specially accredited representative from the United States, and all that could be suggested to emphasize the importance of the event. That event was the completion to the capital city of the long projected railway line from the splendid harbor of Puerto Barrios, on the Gulf of Amatique, and the opening of the last link of a through line from the Atlantic to the Pacific across Guatemalan territory, which gave the American continent its newest interoceanic system.

Like the completion of the earliest railway lines in the United States, which gave through transportation facilities from the East to the Pacific Coast, and the building of the newer Canadian transcontinental roads, it marks an epoch in commerce and development, and its influence must be very great. The fiesta was planned and carried out by the Guatemalan Government, and properly, for the government was instrumental in the building of the line, which will remain a monument to both Presidents Barrios and Cabrera, begun by the administration of one and completed through the concessions of the other; and the future will doubtless show that the event was worthy the great cost of $250,000 to a comparatively poor people for feasting and celebrating.



DOCK AT PUERTO BARRIOS, THE PORT OF GUATEMALA, SHOWING FRUIT STEAMER.

There are two railroad lines in this latest transcontinental system, the Central of Guatemala, built by the late C. P. Huntington and his associates, and still considered a Southern Pacific enterprise, and the Guatemala Railroad, the newer and larger line, formerly called the Northern, completed many years ago from Puerto Barrios to Zacapa, 106 miles from the coast. In 1904 the Northern Railway was acquired by an American syndicate, headed by Gen. Wm. C. Van Horne, Minor C. Keith, vice-president of the United Fruit Company, and Gen. Thomas H. Hubbard, of New York. The new company received some important concessions from the Guatemalan Government, and the Central Railroad became interested in the new enterprise. Work was begun nearly three years ago on the extension of the line to the capital city and the rebuilding of the older portion of the road. It was completed in January, and on the 19th of that month the first train from the Atlantic side of the continent pulled into Guatemala City, and the long-planned ocean-to-ocean line was a reality.

Of the nearly a dozen completed and building lines between the Atlantic and the Pacific only two are shorter than the Guatemala route, with its total mileage of 269½ miles from Puerto Barrios to San José de Guatemala,—195 from Barrios to Guatemala City and seventy-four and one-half from Guatemala City to San José. These lines are the Panama road, thirty miles long, and the Tehuantepec Line in Mexico, 186 miles. As a railroad proposition it has some advantages over both of them, and until the

completion of the Isthmian Canal should be a very considerable factor in the trade between the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of our own country and of Central and South America, and, as well, for certain classes of goods between Europe and the Pacific Ocean. Its greatest influence will be in the development of Guatemala and some of the territory on the Pacific side of neighboring countries.



THE NEWLY COMPLETED GUATEMALA RAILROAD.

(The first train into Guatemala City.)

Guatemala is largely mountainous. The Cordilleras cut the country in two, the main range reaching a height of 5000 to 7000 feet above the sea, while there are many peaks of 10,000 to 13,000 feet. On the Atlantic side there is a narrow strip of low, swampy land, but within a few miles of the sea the foot hills of the mountains stretch from northeast to southwest. On the Pacific Coast lowlands and plains extend a distance of thirty to forty miles into the interior. Elsewhere the country is all mountains, hills, plateaus, and deep valleys. Guatemala City, the capital, a beautiful, attractive place of about 100,000 people, is 4950 feet above the sea. It lies on a wide plateau, surrounded by deep ravines. It is the chief city of the country and also of all Central America. Naturally it is the main point for a railroad crossing the country and opening the interior to foreign trade.

The building of such a line was costly and attended by many serious engineering feats. From the Atlantic port there was a climb, by the easiest routes, of about 5000 feet in 195 miles. From the Pacific the problem was to carry the road up that climb in seventy-five miles. In either of these ascents there must, of course, be some very heavy grades, but they are no more noticeable than on some of the American lines crossing the Alleghenies. Practically all the material for the building and operation of this new route was purchased in the United States, the contractors were mostly Americans, and with hardly an exception on either the Central or the Guatemala the officials and operating men, including conductors and engineers, are Americans.

From Puerto Barrios to San José these two roads, which make up the through line, traverse a most interesting country, and for the greater part of the route a productive one. Puerto Barrios has a deep, roomy harbor, and the heaviest draught vessels can get to its dock. The place is low and at present unhealthy. Improvements are to be made



THE DOCK AND HARBOR AT SAN JOSÉ DE GUATEMALA, THE PACIFIC OCEAN TERMINUS OF THE CENTRAL RAILROAD.



THE MENOCAL CUT ON THE GUATEMALA RAILROAD.
(Showing the kind of construction problem.)

which will change its appearance and make it healthy and attractive. The government of Guatemala has given a contract to the railroad company to expend $2,000,000 in building a sea wall, raising the level of the town and putting in sewerage and thorough drainage.

For fifty to seventy miles from Barrios there are frequent long stretches of banana plantations, and the principal traffic of this portion of the road will always be the handling of this fruit. One of the United Fruit Company's largest plantations is on the line. The fruit company now grows about 1,250,000 bunches annually in Guatemala and has plans to greatly increase the production.

Beginning a few miles from the sea the road follows the Motogua River and one of its branches nearly to Guatemala City. Most of the distance is a steady climb through the mountain country, with frequent deep ravines and valleys, past a few prosperous towns and plantation districts. Zacapa is the chief city en route and the most important place on the eastern side of the mountains.

The line of the Central Railway from Guatemala City to San José traverses a country with many of the same characteristic features as that on the Caribbean side. The mountain region is less rough and rugged. From Guatemala City to Esquintla, an important place, the country is given up to sugar, coffee and stock, and there are many splendid plantations. San José is an old port, but there is no protected harbor.

There are regular lines of steamers plying between Puerto Barrios and New Orleans and Mobile, Liverpool and Hamburg, while the Pacific mail steamers and others regularly make San José, giving a Pacific service as far as San Francisco, on the north, and the coast of South America, on the south, while European vessels also make the voyage there around the Horn. The Hamburg-American Line has long had regular service from Barrios to European ports, and, via Jamaica, connection with New York. The United Fruit Company, with which the Guatemala Railroad is closely allied, has improved its service from New Orleans by new and larger steamers, and has building steamers for a New York-Puerto Barrios line. The improvement of the steamship service, in connection with the new through rail line, must have a very considerable effect upon the transcontinental business, and until the Panama Canal is in operation the new road will furnish a splendid competitive route. Puerto Barrios is 800 miles nearer the United States



THE CONSTRUCTION OF LAS VACOS VIADUCT ON THE GUATEMALA RAILROAD.



VIEW IN THE FOREST NEAR LOS ANDES, GUATEMALA.
(For fifty miles from the sea the road traverses a country like this. This section lends itself to fine banana plantations.)

than Colon, and Panama is 1000 miles south of San José.

The most important results from the opening of the transcontinental line will be the increased American trade with Guatemala and the developments sure to be brought about in that republic. Guatemala is the most populous, and in many respects the richest and most highly developed, of the Central American countries. It has an area of about 48,300 square miles, just about that of New York. No State or country of anything like similar area is by nature richer or more promising. It has vast areas of fertile agricultural land, a splendid climate, great forest and mineral wealth, and is rich in scenic and historic attractions. Nearly all the products of both the temperate and tropic zones grow to advantage. Wheat, corn, barley and hemp flourish. Coffee of a superior quality and sugar cane are great staple crops. Fine cotton is raised, and the country seems ideal for stock. Over one hundred fruits and vegetables are grown, including all the common ones of our country and many tropical edibles we do not know. The banana is the principal fruit cultivated and with coffee, mahogany, and rubber makes up the principal exports of the country. Only a small portion of the available area has been developed agriculturally. Little has been done with the forests and the mineral resources. From the mountain streams can be developed a large amount of power, and a wide range of industries should be successfully established, where at present there are scarcely any outside of the sugar factories, a single cotton-mill, a few small tanneries, and the salt works at San José.

Heretofore Guatemala City and the best-developed portions of the interior, outside the Coban coffee district, reached by the Rio Dulce and Lake Izabel, have had connection with the coast only on the Pacific side. Through San José, Champerico, and Ocos have come all the imports and gone all the exports of coffee from the big western district, and all the sugar. All the trade of Guatemala City has gone by way of the Central Road and San José. This has meant the trans-shipment by the Isthmus of Panama, after a coast voyage of 1000 miles, or the long journey around the Horn for European and Atlantic Coast commerce. The Horn route has been used for heavy machinery from Europe and other European imports where time was not a great object. There was the route via San Francisco for American goods, but the steamers take ten days from that port to San José. The result was that English and German manufacturers had an advantage over American exporters on the Atlantic Coast and in the Gulf States for machinery and were on an equal footing with us for other trade. A visit to the shops in Guatemala City showed few American goods, except some specialties and cotton goods and the preserved fruits of California and flour from Pacific Coast mills. The large amount of machinery in use on the sugar and coffee plantations is practically all English or German, and to those countries have gone the products sold for export.

With the opening of the new route via Barrios there will be more direct communication with the Gulf ports, Atlantic Coast, and, of course, with Europe. Nearly two thousand miles will be taken off the distance to American ports, as measured by the Panama route, and days in time. Guatemala City may now be reached in four or five days from New Orleans and Mobile and seven days from New York, and the journey is an easy one. The new line is already getting some of the coffee movement from the west coast, and while the Pacific Isthmian route will not give up the traffic without a struggle it will be at a disadvantage. Already the competition has reduced the time to New York and Europe via Panama two days. Puerto Barrios is the only port of the country where a steamer is at present able to lie at a dock while taking or discharging cargo. At San José, in heavy weather, there is always danger of spraying the coffee and other goods with salt water, while in the lighters, and that greatly increases the insurance rates.

The representative of a German house selling sugar factory machinery said to an American competitor, after the new road was completed: "You now have a great advantage over us, and we recognize that we must yield the trade to you." As it will be in this line so it will be in others, if the American exporters go after the business.

The Central American states are most interesting and attractive spots for the tourist and pleasure seeker, and the new railroad will undoubtedly make the Guatemala trip a popular one with this class of travelers. It would be hard to find a more pleasant sea voyage than the winter trip to the Caribbean, while the country has unusual charms. The scenic wonders and beauties furnished by the rivers and lakes and mountains and the picturesque villages are many. The Dulce River is destined to be one of the most famous on the continent. The Caribs and the Indians, the latter in their native costumes, are extremely picturesque and interesting. Their ways, their villages, their wares will all be new and entertaining to the American or European traveler. The country is rich in prehistoric monuments. There are the really wonderful ruins of Antigua, with its cathedral, churches and palaces, destroyed in 1773 by the volcano Agua.

The city of Guatemala has a fine location, its streets are paved, it has nearly all the modern conveniences, many fine buildings, numerous parks, and is beautiful and attractive. Sir William C. Van Horne plans, it is said, to erect here at an early date a large, modern hotel.

The population of the country is about 1;500,000,—60 per cent. Indians and most of the remainder natives of mixed Spanish-Indian blood. There are 10,000 Germans and other Europeans and nearly one thousand Americans.



THE LAS VACOS VIADUCT ON THE GUATEMALA RAILROAD.

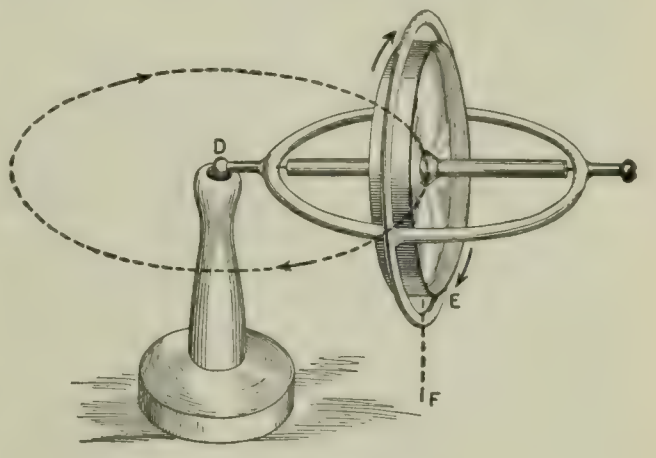
THE GYROSCOPE AND HOW WE MAY MAKE IT USEFUL.

BY ARTHUR GORDON WEBSTER.

[The following description of the gyroscope and its wonderful capacities explains the mysteries which have caused so much discussion. Applications of this gyroscope principle to more than one industrial enterprise in the near future make the articles of more than passing interest. Mr. Webster is Professor of Physics at Clark University, Worcester, Mass.—THE EDITOR.]

IN view of the great popular interest in the recent practical applications of the gyroscope, and the mystery which seems to surround the mode of action of that fascinating instrument, it will be useful to explain, in the simplest possible language, the mechanical principles involved. Although the adequate explanation of the motions of the gyroscope, or as we may as well call it, of any symmetrical top,—for that is what it is,—demands a knowledge of the most difficult sort of the higher mathematics, and has been for 120 years, and is still, a favorite subject of attack by the most learned mathematicians, I will undertake this task as best I may.

The properties of the gyroscope are exhibited by any rapidly revolving disk, flywheel, or well-balanced system turning about an axis, the essential being that this axis may be turned so as to point in any direction in space. As long as the system is moved with the axis pointing in the same direction none of the properties about to be described come into play. It is only when the direction of the axis of rotation is changed that anything striking is observed. For instance, the commonest form of the gyroscope, which may be bought at the toyshops, and which is shown in the figure, has the axis mounted on pivots carried by a ring which may be held in the hand, from which projects a small head D, which may be supported on a stand. If the disk is spinning rapidly, instead of falling down, as it would do if not spinning, the whole apparatus begins to turn about the support, its axis apparently moving in a horizontal plane, as shown by the dotted line in the figure. This is really not a perfectly accurate description of what happens, but it is what nearly everyone supposes he sees, when performing the experiment, and it is generally supposed to be "mysterious" or "paradoxical," or to "defy the law of gravity," all of which is of course highly absurd. That which is unfamiliar seems mysterious, but as familiarity increases the mystery departs. There is really no greater mystery about the gyroscope than about any other moving system. Let us approach it through other more familiar phenomena. No one apparently sees anything mysterious in the ordinary spinning top, which seldom spins with its axis erect, but has it tipped to a certain angle with the



A GYROSCOPE TOP.

vertical, about which the axis turns in a conical path. Why does it not fall, instead of moving horizontally, exactly as the gyroscope does? In fact, the gyroscope, as described, is simply a top so arranged that the inclination of its axis to the vertical may reach a right angle, which is impossible in a top spinning on the ground, though not if its point be put on a raised stand.

THE PHYSICAL LAW INVOLVED.

Let us begin with the simplest possible mechanical phenomenon. Everybody knows that a body left to itself can do nothing but move in a straight line with unchanging speed. If we wish to hurry it, we must pull it ahead, and it pulls back; if we wish to retard it, we must pull it backwards, when it will pull ahead, and if we wish to divert it from its straight course, we must pull it side-

wise, when it will also pull back or resist. This is what we mean by the *inertia* of a body, namely its apparent unwillingness to do what we try to make it. All the properties of tops are due to this familiar *inertia*. One way to make a body, say a stone, go out of a straight line is to fasten it to a string, hold one end, and whirl it around, when the stone will describe a circle, and the pull that the stone exerts in being forced out of a straight line is plainly felt by the pull of the string on the hand. Everybody knows that we have only to release the pull on the stone to have the latter fly off in a straight line in the direction that it was going at the instant of letting go. This fact was known thousands of years before David used it to kill Goliath, and was not considered mysterious. Now every boy knows that the pull of the hand may be replaced by the pull of another stone tied to the other end of a string, and that if the whole combination be whirled around and let go the two stones will revolve around each other, keeping the string stretched, since each stone has to leave its straight path to describe a circle, and consequently pulls back on the string. Now, instead of two particles connected by a string, let us consider a whole ring of particles solidly connected together into a rigid body like a hoop. If this be set into rotation in its own plane, that is, so that every part of it goes around in the same circular path forming the shape of the hoop, it is plain that each particle pulls outward from the center as before, but that the pull of each outwards is counterbalanced by that of the one opposite, so that the whole hoop has no tendency to leave its position or change its motion. However, if it rotates fast enough the pulls will be shown by the bursting of the hoop, which sometimes happens to great fly-wheels with dire results.

THE DISTURBANCE CAUSED BY GRAVITY.

In the experiment with the hoop, and in all such experiments where we wish to bring out the effect of rotation, we are much disturbed by gravity, and are obliged either to throw the hoop into the air, or to find some other means of getting rid of the effect of its weight. Let us try to find such a means. If we fasten two wires as diameters of the hoop at right angles to each other, and where they cross fasten a string from which the whole is suspended, the hoop may turn about freely, and there will be no difficulty in making it turn in its own plane, whether that is horizontal or not. This point of intersection is the center of gravity of the hoop. Every body has such a center of gravity. Let us now suspend a top on its center of gravity, so that it may spin about it as a fixed point. This may be done by making the top bell-shaped, as in Fig. 1, and making the point on which it spins come exactly at the center of gravity of the whole top. This will be the case when the top will, when not spinning, rest indifferently in any position without oscillating. If the top is now spun, while the axis is held fixed, by supporting its upper end with the finger, it will continue to spin quietly about this axis, so that, if the top is accurately made, from a little distance its motion cannot be distinguished.

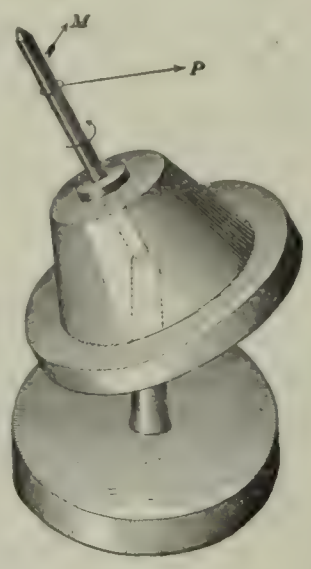


FIG. 1.

The reason for this is of course perfectly plain. Each particle of the top describes a circle, and finds its pull counterbalanced by that of a particle lying opposite, as before. In fact, we may think of the top as cut up into rings, each of which has its center lying on the axis of the top, and whose motion is precisely like that of the single ring previously considered. Thus we may make the statement that a top freed from the action of its weight by being supported at its center of gravity will spin about its axis, which will maintain its direction in space unchanged. This fact is still perfectly familiar. Yet not all of its consequences are familiar, for if a top can be kept spinning for some time, so that the earth has turned about on its axis, if the axis of the top still points in the same direction in space it will have moved relatively to the earth. In fact, if it points to some star it will continue pointing to it as to seems to move in the heavens. Thus we have a demonstration of the rotation of the earth. This experiment was actually carried out in 1852 by the French physicist, Foucault, and forms a most convincing and startling experiment. Foucault's mounting of the top was not that described above and shown in Fig. 1, but another mode of accomplishing the

object of freeing the rotating body from the action of gravity. A flywheel, F, Fig. 2, has its axis run in pivots set in a ring, A, which can itself turn on pivots in a line at right angles to the first set in an outer ring, B, which can turn about a third axis, C, at right angles to the other two. Thus the axis of the top, or flywheel can take any direction in space, and all the time the center of gravity of the top is a fixed point. The top can spin as before quite free from the action of gravity, and if it is carefully enough made the motion of its axis can be perceived in a few minutes, at any rate if a microscope is used, as it was by Foucault. But with an ordinary apparatus, the axis of the top seems to stand quite still.

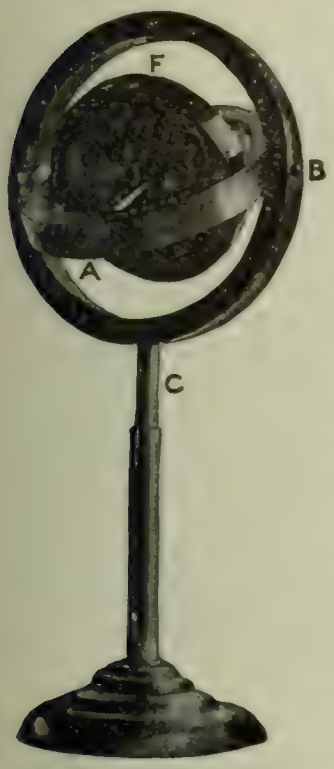


FIG. 2.

A practical application of this property is made use of in the Whitehead torpedo, which when discharged from a torpedo-boat must be steered against the enemy, and carries, instead of a human steersman, a small gyroscope, mounted in rings as described. When the torpedo is discharged the axis of the flywheel points at the enemy. If now the torpedo strikes any obstruction and is turned off its course the axis of the gyroscope, true to its nature, keeps pointing in the same direction, and thus the outside ring turns relatively to the hull of the torpedo, and moves a little lever which controls the steering engine, moving the rudder, and thus bringing the torpedo back on its course. It is this gyroscopic gear, invented by the Austrian Lieutenant Obry, that has made the torpedo the instrument of precision capable of doing the damage done by the Japanese to the Russian ships.

STARTLING PROPERTY OF THE GYROSCOPE.

We come now to the unfamiliar property of the gyroscope. If, with the top of Fig. 1 spinning quietly about its axis, we apply a force tending to change the direction of the axis, say by pulling on the string, P, we find that the axis resists the pull, and that instead of moving in the direction in which we pull, it moves off in a direction at right angles, M. This is the startling property of the gyroscope, and if we understand this we understand every phenomenon connected with this supposedly mysterious apparatus. We may then explain this property by saying that if any force is exerted on a symmetrical top tending to change the direction of its axis, the axis will not move in the direction of that force, but will tend to move at right angles thereto, to the right if the top spins as in the figure, to the left if in the reverse direction. We now see why the gyroscope as shown in the picture does not fall—its weight tends to make it do so, so by the property of the gyroscope it does not, but moves off sidewise. When it begins to move horizontally the gyroscopic effect tends to make it move again at right angles, that is upwards, so that it does not fall. In fact, if we could examine it carefully we should find that it does not move in a horizontal plane as approximately described above, but rises and falls periodically, describing a curve with loops or points, as in Fig. 3, which is from a photograph made by the writer by putting a small electric light on the axis of a gyroscope and exposing it to a camera. When the top spins fast the rise and fall is too slight and too rapid to be seen. It is visible only to the sensitive plate.

APPLICATION TO THE MONO-RAILROADS.

We can now easily understand one of the recent interesting applications of the gyroscope to prevent the rolling of ships. Dr. Oskar Schlick of Hamburg has placed a large gyroscope made as a steam turbine with

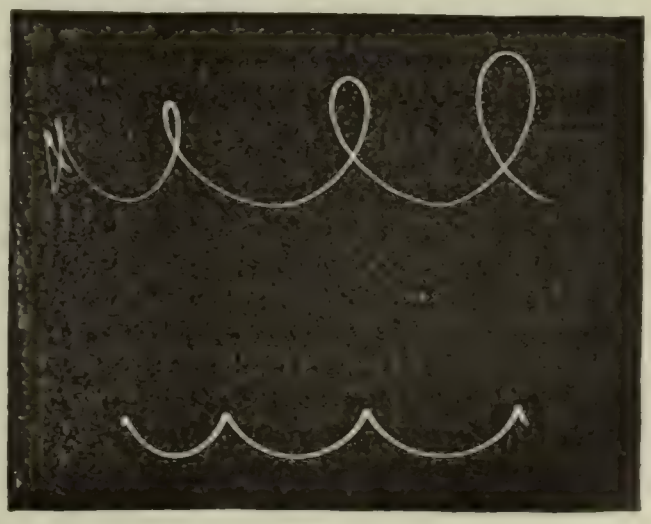


FIG. 3.

its axis vertical, and the axis of the first ring horizontal and across the ship. If the ship rolls, say to the right, it is as if we pulled the string above to the right. The axis of the gyroscope then resists, but instead of moving to the right tips toward the bow or stern. It is easy to see that if allowed to tip over horizontal the resisting power would be



FIG. 4.

lost; in fact, we may state the property of the gyroscope by saying that if we attempt to rotate it about a certain direction as an axis, as here the horizontal direction of the keel of the ship, it will turn until it sets the gyroscope axis as nearly as possible parallel to the given direction. This explains how a gyroscope carried by the earth tends to set its axis parallel to the earth's axis, and if its own axis is confined so as to move in a horizontal plane, it tends to point north and south, constituting a mechanical compass. The experiment may be made of holding the gyroscope, Fig. 2, in the hands, and turning quickly about on a vertical axis, when the gyroscope will set its axis vertical.

THE BRENNAN RAILROAD.

One of the most interesting applications of the gyroscopic principle is seen in the top shown in Fig. 4, which, like the one above described, is balanced on its center of gravity, and can thus spin with its axis immovable. If, however, it is brought into contact with the wire guide shown, the top rolls rapidly along the wire, and even when it comes to the end of the wire does not let go and fly off, as we should expect, but clings to the wire and rolls around the end as if held by magnetism. The reason is plain. The rolling makes the axis run along the wire, the gyroscopic effect makes it push at right angles thereto, and the faster it rolls the more it pushes, so that it must stick tightly to the wire. This is the principle used by Mr. Brennan in his curious monorail railway, which has lately taken the public by storm. The problem of balancing a car on a single rail, though similar to Schlick's problem, is not to be solved so simply. Brennan puts his gyroscope axis horizontally across the car. If, now, one gyroscope is used every time the car comes to a curve the gyroscope will tip it over. Consequently two are used, revolving independently and in opposite directions. Now, attached to each side of the car is a horizontal shelf parallel to the rail. If the car tips to the left, the shelf on the right comes up against the horizontal axis of the right-hand gyroscope, which immediately begins to roll on it, as in the top, and thus presses hard against it, preventing the car from tipping any more. By simple gearing, the two gyroscopes are made to turn together in opposite directions about their vertical axes, so that they help each other in counteracting the tipping, though they counteract each other when going around a curve.

WHY THE "PULL TO ONE SIDE"?

I have heretofore contented myself with a description of the phenomenon of the gyroscope, working up from the more to the less

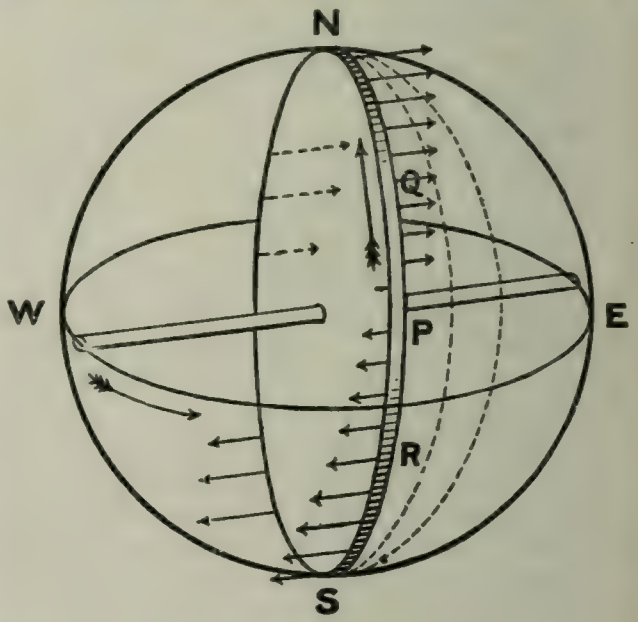


FIG. 5.

familiar. It remains to answer the question, "Why does the gyroscope exhibit the pig-like characteristic of always pulling off to the side instead of following in the direction it is urged?" As the writer has been asked the explanation of this many times

since, as a boy, he vainly attempted to controvert the statement of a showman at a mechanics' fair that "Nobody can explain this marvelous instrument," he will now undertake to give one, having left it to the end in order that the tired reader may skip it if he chooses.

For simplicity of description let us suppose the axis of the gyroscope to lie horizontally in the equator of a terrestrial globe, Fig. 5, the flywheel turning from south to north on the side toward us, from north to south on the back side. The globe is turning from west to east, as the arrows indicate. Then a point on the wheel like P, when on the equator, besides moving upwards with the rotation, is moving eastward with the greatest velocity of any points on the earth. When it gets farther north, as at Q, it is not moving toward the east so fast (at the pole not at all), and, therefore, having lost some of its easterly velocity by being held back, it pushes to the east, as shown by the arrow. The farther north it gets the more its easterly velocity is destroyed, and the harder it pushes, as shown by the longer arrows. The points below the equator, on the contrary, like R, gain easterly motion as they come up, and hence push back to the left. Thus the upper half of the sphere experiences a push to the right, the lower to the left, so that the left-hand end of the axis of the wheel tends to tip up as a consequence of its horizontal motion. But this is exactly the phenomenon to be explained. It is easy to see that the parts of the wheel at the back of the figure exert the same effect as those in front. Thus all the phenomena of the gyroscope are referred to the familiar phenomenon that a body tends to move in a straight line with a uniform velocity, as stated more than two hundred years ago by Sir Isaac Newton.

SOME APPLICATIONS OF THE GYROSCOPE.

BY J. F. SPRINGER.

THE properties of the scientific toy known as the gyroscope promise to effect some wonderful results in the practical world. Thus, the future of railroad transportation may disclose some such outcome as the sight of a train of incredibly large palace cars swinging along at a terrific rate of speed around curves and over straightway stretches with the evenness of balance of a great bird, —the whole on-rushing mass being *poised upon one single shining rail.*

If this be a dream, it has at least some considerable foundation. It will readily be admitted that the crux of the whole matter is the maintenance of equilibrium upon a single rail. This difficulty, it would seem, has been successfully met by a British engineer, Mr. Louis Brennan, in his application of the gyroscope to railway service. Mr. Brennan mounts upon horizontal transverse axles two gyroscopes revolving in opposite directions at a high rate of speed. They are enclosed in casings from which the air has been practically exhausted. The whole arrangement is secured to the car. By means of numerous experiments and tests with a large sized model, having a single row of wheels running upon a single rail, Mr. Brennan would appear to have completely demonstrated the success of his invention upon a small scale. This car maintains its balance upon an irregular piece of gas-pipe, or upon a stretched cable. It descends grades, mounts inclines, rounds curves with ease and certainty,—all with but one row of wheels upon one rail. Equilibrium is maintained whether the car is at rest or has a forward motion. The balancing apparatus weighs about 5 per cent. of the whole. A large car is now under construction with assistance supplied by the Government.

THE WHEEL AND RAIL PROBLEM.

Mr. Brennan anticipates that it will be feasible to operate cars of the breadth of 30 feet. This would much more than realize the dream of Mr. E. H. Harriman, who proposes the adoption upon the present-day style of railways of a track with a comparatively moderate increase of space between rails.

Mr. Brennan's proposition would appear to be a practical engineering possibility, while Mr. Harriman's would not. And for the following reasons: It is, at present, a practical necessity to group wheels together in systems containing not less than four wheels whose relative positions are unalterably fixed.

If a truck has a less number, it can scarcely be relied on to remain on the track. This requirement of a unit of four relatively fixed wheels would not operate as a prohibition of the widening of the inter-rail space of our two-rail tracks, if there were no curves to round. When our present truck swings round a curve, the outer wheels have a greater distance to cover than the inner ones. This difficulty could probably be met by some arrangement where the outer or inner wheels were rotatable on their axles. But this is not the great and apparently insuperable difficulty. That consists in the fact that the curve requires that the two axles of the truck should now be no longer parallel but should converge towards the center of curvature. With our necessarily parallel axles this cannot be done. And further, the greater the inter-rail space, the more pronounced must be the departure from parallelism. Consequently, the broader the tread of our trains the greater the friction at curves. Mr. Brennan meets this difficulty and solves it at one stroke by reducing the tread to approximately nothing.

DOES GREAT WEIGHT DESTROY THE BALANCE?

Many no doubt will say that perhaps an experimental car weighing 175 pounds may be entirely successful and yet cars of standard size prove failures. This was expressed editorially in the *Scientific American* and has no doubt occurred to many. Of course this matter must come to an actual test. In the meantime, however, Mr. Brennan has dealt with the question of increased dimensions in a recent number of the *Engineer* (London), and arrives at the conclusion that if the linear dimensions be increased two and one-half times, the ratio of the weight of the gyroscope wheels to that of the car will not only not be increased but will actually be decreased. In fact, he finds that the gyroscope percentage will be one-half the present rate.

Another great difficulty in present-day road construction is to lay the two rails so that they shall accurately correspond in level and should remain so. With Mr. Brennan's system there will be no matching one rail with the other.

The question that will arise in many minds is, What will happen if the power fails which maintains the gyroscopes in rotation? Nothing will happen. At least not for a while. They will maintain sufficient speed to preserve equilibrium for several hours. But if the gyroscopes fail through some break? This is a catastrophe paralleled somewhat by breaks in our car wheels, axles, &c. The increased safety, arising from want of significance of slight imperfections of track, would perhaps more than compensate for this.

As to the general proposition of locomotion on one rail,—it would not seem to be intrinsically more preposterous to maintain the equilibrium of a car mounted on wheels arranged in tandem than for the bicycle rider to balance his wheel. At any rate, experiments already tried would seem to give assurance of success. No doubt various difficulties may be expected to arise in connection with the application to cars of excessive size and weight. But, it may be asked, just how is the maintenance of equilibrium secured? How do the wheels, rotating in a vacuum, negative as it were the disturbing effects of gravitation? In order to understand this matter, even to a limited extent, it will be necessary to know some of the properties of that wonderful scientific toy,—the gyroscope top.

EXPERIMENTING WITH THE GYROSCOPE TOP.

A simple but serviceable gyroscope may be bought for 25 cents, and with this instrument certain startling phenomena may be observed. The essential elements are a heavy rotatable disk and a frame in which the spindle of the disk is journaled. (Note illustration, page 205.) Now suppose that the disk has been set in rapid rotation by the use of a string, as with an ordinary top. Holding the frame in the hands and moving the whole about, we shall notice nothing very peculiar as long as we are careful not to change the general direction of the spindle. If, however, we make an attempt suddenly to change this direction, there will be experienced a very singular resistance on the part of the gyroscope. There is, no doubt, a certain amount of resistance to movement in any direction, but that accompanying an angular displacement of the spindle is surprising on account of its peculiar character. With the disk rotating rapidly, let the projection D be supported on a suitable standard with the spindle in a horizontal position. Remove the support of the hand, and, contrary to expectation, the gyroscope will not fall. On the contrary, it will begin a circular movement around the point of support in the direction of the motion of the lower part of the disk, as shown in the picture. In considering the matter, let it be observed that, aside from



THE BRENNAN MODEL FOR THE MONO-RAIL TRAIN, SHOWING HOW EASILY A TRACK MAY BE LAID ON UNEVEN GROUND.

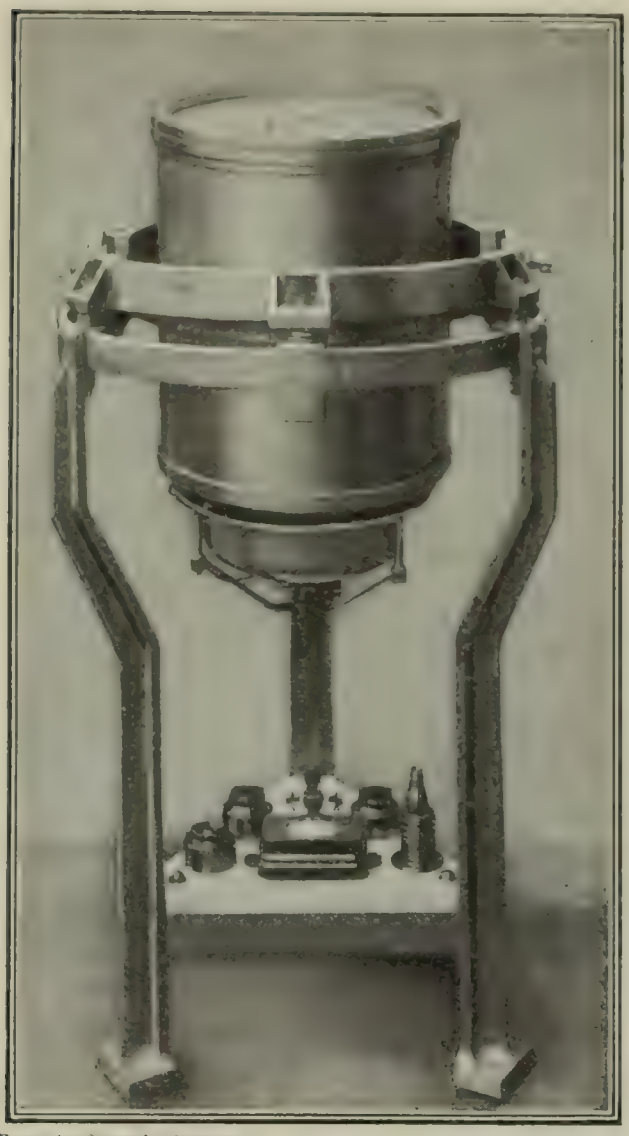
any rotating motions, the whole apparatus is subject to the action of gravitation. That is, there is a downward motion of the disk as a whole in the direction of the normal* EF, page 205). This in combination with the rotation gives rise to a motion at right angles to this normal and following the direction given by the lowest point E,—that is, by the side next the gravitational influence.

By extending the projection D beyond the point of support and weighting it sufficiently to cause the gyroscope (when quiescent) to ascend instead of descend, it will be observed that the resulting circular movement of the whole will be similar to that obtained before, but in precisely the opposite direction. It observes the rule, however, just pointed out inasmuch as the direction of the motion of the disk at the origin of the normal that gives the line of attempted movement is the reverse of what it was before—the normal now being *above* instead or *below*. This motion of a rotating body about a new axis in consequence of an attempted angular displacement of its main axis is denoted by the technical name *precession*.

* A normal is a line perpendicular to a tangent at the point of contact. In the case of a circle the normal coincides in direction with the radius drawn to the point. See illustration, "Gyroscope top," on page 205.

ARE CYCLONES EXAMPLES OF GYROSCOPIC ACTION?

A writer in *Popular Astronomy* has called attention to those whirling storms which sweep over the surface of the globe and has cited them as examples of gyroscope action. Thus, suppose an immense cyclonic movement of the atmosphere to have been set up in the lower latitudes. We have here a rotating body precisely similar to our artificial gyroscopic disk. The axis of rotation of such a rotating mass of air passes through the center of the earth. But the earth itself has a rotational movement carrying the whole cyclone with it. This has the effect of giving, —or attempting to give,—an angular movement to the axis of the cyclone. Now such storms in the northern hemisphere usually rotate counter-clockwise. And the rotational motion of the earth is from west to east. We have thus an atmospheric gyroscope rotating counter-clockwise and the earth displacing the gyroscopic axis from west to east. To determine the precessional movement, we



From the *Scientific American.*

THE GYROSCOPE AS A COMPASS.—THE ANSCHÜTZ.

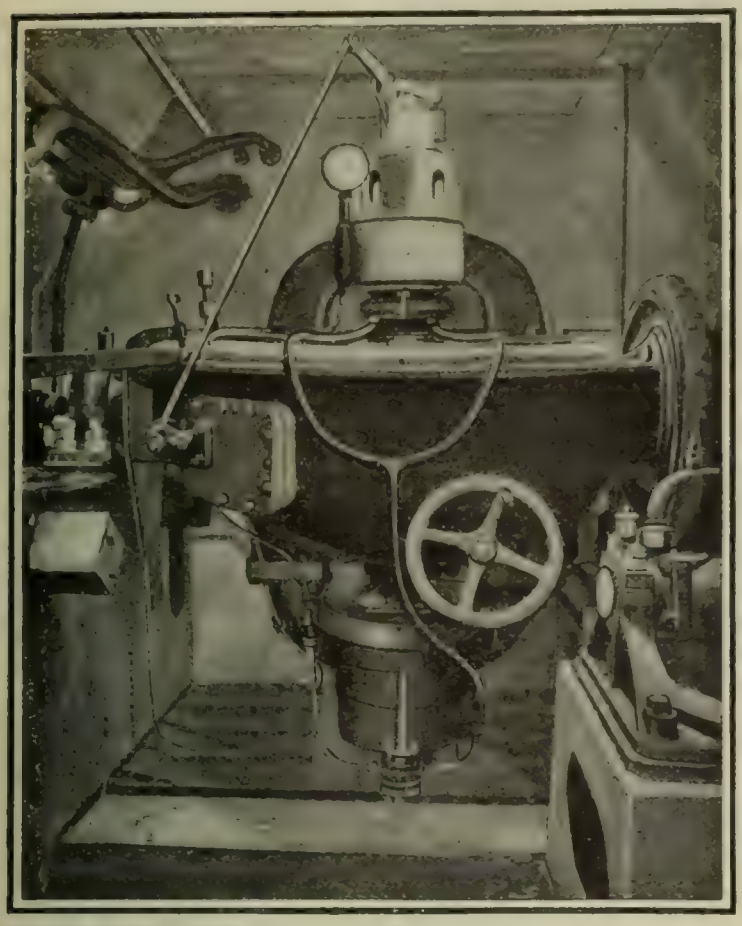
construct our normal, then, at the extreme eastern side of the cyclone. The wind at this point is moving north. Consequently, the whole whirling mass of air is carried northwards, similarly to the precessional movement of the rotating disk in a horizontal direction in conformity to the direction given by its lower part, in consequence of the attempted motion under the influence of gravitation (Fig. 1). The Galveston hurricane, it would seem, was such an atmospheric gyroscope. Following the destruction of Galveston, it proceeded north, leaving the continent by the St. Lawrence Valley and exercising its destructive influence in a region as far north as Iceland. Another case cited by the same writer is a storm whose course was traced by a member of the British meteorological service. This gyroscope proceeded from the Philippines in a northerly direction to Japan, then across the Pacific, North America, the North Atlantic, Europe and into the wilds of Asiatic Russia.

To turn aside from nature, attention is called to the fact that Dr. H. Anschütz-Kämpfe has successfully applied the gyroscope to the purpose of correcting the defects of the old magnetic compass. Consider for a moment the disturbing factors which tend to render the ordinary compass an imperfect instrument. In the first place, it is suspended in such a sensitive manner, (with the purpose of rendering it responsive to the feeble influence of the magnetic currents), that it is subject to disturbances arising out of the rolling and pitching of the ship, the vibration of the hull, the movement of large masses of iron or steel on ship-board, and magnetic storms. At times it thus becomes very unreliable. The object which the Anschütz compass seeks to attain is to determine the true direction when conditions are favorable for the purely magnetic compass and then by means of the gyroscope to maintain this correctness through the periods of disturbance. The binnacle is fixed to the ship. In this, by means of gimballs the bowl or cup is suspended. In the bowl, arranged on a vertical axis, is the compass system. The gyroscope rotates on a horizontal axle capable of assuming any direction. The function of the gyroscope is, as already intimated, to maintain the direction after it has once been fixed. The later model of this invention is fitted with an electro-magnetic device from which the current may be cut off after the direction is ascertained magnetically. The rotating disk or disks then operate as a gyroscope pure and simple, uncomplicated by magnetic currents. The rotational speed is about 3000 revolutions per minute.

There have been very exhaustive tests of this gyroscopic compass by authority of the Imperial German navy department on board the war-ship *Undine,* which have yielded very satisfactory results.

THE GYROSCOPE ON SHIPBOARD.

About the middle of the last century, Prof. Piazzi Smyth developed a successful method of controlling a platform on board ship. Dr. Otto Schlick has, however, during the past few years, been perfecting an invention which applies the gyroscope to the management of the entire vessel. The object it seeks,—and it would seem, attains,—is to eliminate that lateral movement of a ship's hull known as rolling. This is a most disagreeable motion, and constitutes the most unpleasant feature in sea travel. With this eliminated and vi-



From the *Scientific American.*

THE SCHLICK GYROSTAT IN THE "SEEBAER."

bration controlled, transportation by water will not differ markedly from that on land. The new invention is getting well past the experimental stage. For the Hamburg-American Company are said to have ordered a gyroscope equipment at a cost of £7500 for the *Sylvania,* which sails the North Sea. There have been extensive and searching trials of the device with the *Seebaer,* formerly a first-class German torpedo-boat. This vessel is 116 feet in length by 11.7 feet in beam, and displaces fifty odd tons. In 1906 trials were made in German waters with great success. More recently, that is in last November, other trials were conducted with the same vessel, especially for the British firm which has acquired the Schlick patents for countries other than Germany. It may be added in this connection that Sir William H. White, formerly Chief Constructor of the British Navy, who has had opportunity for personal observation and is acquainted with the device in a detailed way, has been lending the weight of his approbation to this method of controlling the roll of ships, advising, however, that the process of introduction should proceed carefully, beginning with smaller vessels. There are no doubt problems to be worked out, and possibly dangers to be avoided. It was thought by some that with the deck held horizontal there would be increased danger of shipping seas. Sir William White did not entertain this opinion even from the first. And experience has tended to confirm his judgment.

The Schlick gyroscope is mounted on a spindle or shaft, which is vertical when in normal position. The spindle does not work in boxes which have fixed positions in the vessel. On the contrary,—the whole is encased in an iron compartment having two trunnions which project to right and left as one faces the bow of the ship. These work in boxes secured to the vessel. They are somewhat above the center of gravity of the iron casing and the enclosed gyroscope. In consequence of these arrangements, the disk of the gyroscope is normally horizontal and the spindle vertical, but the latter is free to incline fore or aft. The disk is rotated as a turbine by steam admitted and exhausted through the trunnions and which operates against blades on the periphery. Braking arrangements are used to control the oscillations of the iron casing.

Now, when the vessel tends to roll on one side this sets up a precessional movement of the spindle in a fore and aft direction. Just as in Fig. 1, where the action of gravitation corresponds to the impulse to roll, the fall downward did not take place, but was coalesced as it were into the horizontal movement, so here the roll does not take place but the pitching fore or aft of the spindle does. This pitching is controlled by the brakes, in connection with which the energy of the roll is converted into heat.

The principles of the gyroscope are truly wonderful in their character. Some of these promise far-reaching and striking results in the world of practical mechanics. Certain of these applications may appear startling in their results. But that in itself is not sufficient reason to regard them as necessarily impossible. Let us view the future of the gyroscope in its engineering applications,—not with careless credulity and an unreasoning acceptance of any and all marvels, but,—with a mind at once open and critical.

THE AUTHOR OF "UNCLE REMUS."

JOEL CHANDLER HARRIS did not look like a literary man, did not talk or act like one, and, for that matter, always refused to consider himself as one. But "Uncle Remus" has been translated into twenty-seven languages, and it would not be easy to name any American author who will be surer of his readers' hearts a hundred years hence.

Mr. Harris was a Georgia newspaper man, a very quiet, shy person of homely tastes in everything save reading, an author who was obscured by immediate panic when a strange admirer worshiped before him. He was, however, the truest and most unaffected friend in his own little circle,—a man who could enjoy taking the reins of the street-car horse that plodded toward his office while the driver ate his dinner inside, as much as he could suffer when a strange interviewer invaded his sanctum, bent on exploiting him.

He always felt that the "Uncle Remus" stories were a sort of accident in which he bore a comparatively unimportant part. The stories appeared first in the Atlanta *Constitution* in the '70's. Harris had at the age of twelve entered a county newspaper office as printer's devil. He had gone through the multifarious "grind" of a provincial newspaper man in Savannah, Macon, and elsewhere, when in 1876 Colonel Howell brought him to the Atlanta *Constitution* as editorial writer and capable journalistic man-of-all-work. Soon after this "Si" Small, who had been doing dialect sketching for the *Constitution,* resigned, and Colonel Howell, with some difficulty, persuaded Harris to step into the breach and keep the readers amused.

The only thing the young editor could think of was to write down the old plantation stories he had heard in the negro cabins while, after the fashion of Southern boys, he had loafed with the darkies in front of the big open fireplace, with hoecake browning and bacon sizzling. So he ransacked his memory for the most characteristic of these darky stories, printed them in the *Constitution,* and became famous.

This last result surprised him not a little. When he began to get letters from all over the world from "fellows of this and professors of that, to say nothing of doctors of the other," he became aware for the first time that he had invaded the preserves of learned philologists and students of folklore, who were mightily interested in finding that the same stories were being told on the plantations of Georgia that amused the small coolies in the rice fields of India. While the learned people were so profoundly impressed by "Uncle Remus," it does not appear that he was much impressed by them, save for the appeal to his shrewd sense of humor. His was the most charming disposition to take fright when asked to take himself seriously.

But though Mr. Harris considered "Uncle Remus" an accident and himself a fifth-rate literary man, one does not need to read further than the immortal adventure of the Tar Baby to feel that there is more in the matter than chance and the ordinary abilities of country journalism. The best key to the accident is to be found in the habits and recreation of young Joel in those years during the great war, when most of his day was taken up with setting type, carrying "forms," collecting bills, soliciting advertising, and otherwise making himself useful on Colonel Turner's little newspaper, *The Countryman.* The youngster had a way of going straight to the best reading for youngsters in Colonel Turner's very reasonably well appointed library, where he devoured Scott, Dickens, Hugo, Goethe, and Goldsmith. This enables us better to understand the kindly philosophy, that shrewd humor, with something of the universality of appeal of an Aesop or a La Fontaine, that make Uncle Remus, Bre'r Fox, and Bre'r Rabbit irresistible and inimitable. The cotton plantation, the negroes, the folklore stories common in their essentials to those of Europe, Asia, and Africa, these made the opportunity for Harris. In the meantime he had by companionship with the great hearts and minds of men of letters and by diligent application to his craft made himself ready to take the opportunity so naturally and easily that he literally knew not what was being done when he gave a new character to the story-tellers of the ages.

Joel Chandler Harris produced many works besides the "Uncle Remus" series, sufficient in quality to have given him a respectable reputation if the masterpiece had not given him a great reputation. Most of them were volumes of short stories of Georgia life, in the same family with Thompson's "Courtship of Colonel Jones"



"UNCLE REMUS" IN 1908.

(Born December 8, 1848. Died July 3, 1908.)

and Richard Malcolm Johnston's charming Georgia sketches; one was a novel, "Gabriel Tolliver," and two were historical,—a life of Henry W. Grady, founder of the Atlanta *Constitution,* and a history of Georgia.

After a quarter-century of quiet, steady editorial work on the *Constitution,* Mr. Harris retired from his desk in 1900, and for the next few years applied himself to his literary labors. He had married in 1873 and had six children. The enormous success of "Uncle Remus" in Europe as well as America brought him material comfort for his large family. During the past two years he had thrown all his energies into a new Southern monthly, the *Uncle Remus Magazine,* conducted by himself and his son Julian.

As a modest, large-hearted man who pursued his quiet way with whole-souled devotion to the work before him, Mr. Harris will be affectionately remembered by every one who was fortunate enough to be his friend. As the author of "Uncle Remus" he will undoubtedly hold an affection not less deep and true from many generations who come after those who knew him in this life.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER PROBLEM.

THE real heart and soul of the prosperity of the United States is undoubtedly the Mississippi basin. Two-fifths of the country is within this area. The center of the cotton belt lies in Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas. The principal corn-belt is in the Upper Mississippi and Ohio valleys. More than half the population of the country is in the States bordering on the navigable portions of the Mississippi system. Covered as this region is with the thickest network of railways, transportation facilities are altogether inadequate; corn and cotton are excluded from the markets by reason of increased railway rates; "Shortage of Cars" is a familiar headline in the newspapers; and the farmers, with record crops, are naturally disheartened. Conditions have steadily gone from bad to worse, until the harassed producers see that their only salvation lies in a co-ordination of rail and water facilities, writes Dr. Walter Sheldon in the *Popular Science Monthly* for July.

A deep waterway from the Lakes to the Gulf has been talked about, written about, and dreamed about for half a century; but it was not until about a year ago that concerted action was taken. As the result of a conference at St. Louis, the Lakes to the Gulf Deep Waterways Association was formed, having for its object a ship canal, or rather channel, through the Mississippi Valley. The project was supported by the Rivers and Harbors Congress at Washington last winter; the President indorsed the scheme in his Memphis address; his annual message, shortly afterward, referred to the need for river improvement; and now the question is in the hands of Congress. This waterway will be of such immense importance to the economic progress of the country "that it must be reckoned second to none in the list of our great national policies."

The proposal is for a waterway with a depth of fourteen feet from New Orleans to Chicago, with channels of less depth in the Ohio and Missouri.

> It is an enterprise which the United States must inevitably undertake sooner or later, as the density of population increases throughout the Mississippi Valley. Railways will be relatively less able to cope with the rapidly growing demands for transportation facilities in the future. . . . It cannot be denied that the improvement of our greatest inland waterways would be followed by vastly more important industrial advantages than can ever result from the opening of the Panama Canal. These advantages would be not to the people of the Mississippi Valley alone, but to the people of every county and corner of the Union through their dependence on the products of this region.

The project is, however, fraught with immense difficulties.

> Like all big rivers, the Mississippi and its tributaries have bad habits, the worst of which are devastating floods, followed by very low stages of water at other times; rapid changes in the course through the sapping of banks; and constant shifting of the channel, often over night, on account of the formation of sand-bars. . . . The sand-bar evil in the Missouri is so great and so perplexing that it completely overshadows the question of flood control and sapping of banks.

From Cairo to the Gulf is about 600 miles, but, owing to the tortuous course which the river has developed, the distance by water is twice as long, and on every one of the bends throughout the 1200 miles the outer bank of the channel is being constantly undermined and worn away. Every landing has been driven back by the river at the rate of 100 or 150 feet a year for the last twenty-five years.

Kaskaskia, the former capital of Illinois, has been wiped out of existence by the changing current of the Mississippi, "while the prospect of a cut-off at Cowpen Bend, above Natchez, indicates that the harbor of that city will be destroyed by the deposition of large quantities of sand along the entire water front."

Half a dozen floods have entailed losses in the last quarter of a century aggregating a quarter of a billion dollars, "while the sum total from all floods has equaled many times over the entire cost of the most effective and permanent means of protection."

These perplexing problems have to be solved before the Government can afford to expend one or two hundred millions in river improvement. Water fronts and terminal facilities must be insured a reasonable degree

of permanency; disastrous floods must be checked; and the formation of sand-bars must be stopped. For a number of years the federal Government has been building levees to prevent or to control floods; and it is estimated that it has spent on the work $225,000,000, not one cent of which has gone toward permanent improvement. But, while the levee system is fairly effective in the case of ordinary floods, its desirability is impaired by the fact that the levees must be constantly repaired. Dr. Tower considers the cheapest and most certain remedy to lie in the construction of a series of reservoirs in the headwaters of the chief tributaries. In these reservoirs the excessive water which produces flood-stages might be impounded.

As soon as the irresistible rush of flood-waters is stopped, the sapping and caving of banks will be reduced to a minimum. . . . The prevention of the annual flood damage in the Ohio would in itself be worth the entire cost of the reservoirs. . . . Cutting down the flood volumes means a marked alleviation of the sand-bar evil.

Dr. Tower, assuming the feasibility of such reservoirs, meets the question of the expense of their construction with the assertion that their total cost would be less than the sum which has already been spent on the Mississippi system. He points out that there would be an enormous development of water-power from each reservoir, which could be used for industrial purposes. On a very conservative estimate, "a purely nominal rental would be ample enough to repay in two or three decades the entire original expense of the system, besides a good income on the investment."

The average life of a levee is not more than twenty years; the reservoirs would be permanent. "Considered solely on their own merits, the present system has nothing, the reservoir plan has everything, to recommend it."

THE NEED OF A NATIONAL HEALTH ORGANIZATION.

THIS is the burden of a remarkably instructive paper by Samuel Hopkins Adams in *McClure's Magazine* for July, in which he presents certain plain, unvarnished facts concerning our health boards, which compel the attention of every right-minded citizen. It may not be generally known that our only federal guardianship of the public health is vested in the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, which is placed in the Treasury Department. "It is * * * a highly trained and efficient body of hygienists and medical men * * * Any germ-beleaguered city may call upon this service for aid. It is a sort of flying squadron of sanitative defense."

This writer holds that of the State boards only a fourth are to be regarded as actively efficient: the rest "are honorary and ornamental." In some instances, however, the boards lack any appropriation upon which to work. On the other hand, the medical politician blocks the road to reform.

It was in South Carolina that a medical politician, who served on the public health committee of the Legislature, addressed this question to a body of physicians who had come to appeal for certain sanitary reforms: "What do you want of laws to prevent folks being sick? Ain't that the way you make your livin'?"

Of the city bureaus, that of New York City, with Dr. Thomas Darlington at its head, is "the most thoroughly organized in the United States."



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DR. THOMAS DARLINGTON.

A serious hindrance to the successful operations of what may be termed the public-health army is the lack of reliable vital statistics. Only fifteen States record all deaths and forbid burial without a legal permit. "Outside of this little group of States the decedent may be tucked away informally underground and no one be the wiser for it." In certain Southern cities the deaths of colored people are not recorded, the white death-rate being held to be the key to the health of the town. Other cities eliminate the deaths under ten days by regarding them as "still births" (!)

Much of this unreliability of statistics may be set down to the account of the medical profession.

A considerable percentage of physicians falsify the returns to protect the sensibilities of their patrons. That they owe protection rather to the lives of the public, they never stop to think. . . . In many communities it is considered a disgrace to die of consumption. . . . In order to save the feelings of the family, a death from consumption is reported as bronchitis or pneumonia. The man is buried quietly. The premises are not disinfected, as they should be, and perhaps some unknowing victim moves into that germ-reeking atmosphere as into a pitfall.

In Salt Lake City forty-three deaths were ascribed to tuberculosis, yet, under the ordinance requiring the registration of all cases of consumption, only five persons were reported as ill of the disease (!)

The facts concerning epidemics are frequently suppressed out of regard for business interests.

It was so in New Orleans, where the leading commercial forces of the city, in secret meeting, called the health officer before them and browbeat him into concealing the presence of yellow fever. And "concealed" it was, until it had secured so firm a foothold that suppression was no longer practicable.

The doctors are not alone to blame in this matter of suppression: sometimes the newspapers combine to "omit" news concerning epidemics.

Early in 1900 the first case of the present bubonic plague onset appeared in San Francisco's Chinatown. . . . A conference of the managing editors, known as the "midnight meeting," was held, at which it was decided that no news should be printed admitting the plague. The *Chronicle* started by announcing under big head-lines: "Plague Fake Part of Plot to Plunder"; "There Is No Bubonic Plague in San Francisco." This was "in the interests of business." . . . Sick Chinamen were shipped away; venal doctors diagnosed the pest as "chicken cholera," "diphtheria," and other known and unknown ailments.

Not infrequently the municipalities themselves refuse to bear the expense necessary for the installation of a proper system of sanitation. In Charleston, for instance, though the city has a fairly good water supply, the public schools are furnished with water from polluted cisterns. "Therefore, typhoid is not only logical but inevitable."

Throughout the South hygienic conditions are complicated by the negro problem. "The frank statement of what may seem a brutal fact" is that "New Orleans, Atlanta, Charleston, or Savannah would be loath to diminish their negro mortality." The negro breeds rapidly, and unless he died rapidly he would in the cities soon overwhelm the whites by sheer force of numbers. Health Officer Brunner puts the case thus:

We face the following issues: First: one set of people, the Caucasian, with a normal death-rate of less than 16 per thousand per annum, and right alongside of them is the negro race with a death-rate of 25 to 30 per thousand. Second: the first-named race furnishing a normal amount of criminals and paupers and the second race of people furnishing an abnormal percentage of law-breakers and paupers.

Is the negro receiving a square deal? . . . The negro is with you for all time. He is what you will make him; and it is "up" to the white people to prevent him from becoming a criminal and to guard him against tuberculosis, etc. If he is tainted with disease, you will suffer; if he develops criminal tendencies, you will be affected.

Work of the American Health League.

In the *Van Norden Magazine* for July, under the caption "To Help the Nation's Health," Mr. Michael Williams has an article describing the program of the American Health League, organized by the Committee of One Hundred on National Health of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. Under the banners of the committee 50,000 persons are enlisted in the fight against disease and death. In its constructive campaign, politically, are included the following three items: (1) The passage by Congress of a bill for the redistribution of the existing health bureaus; (2) larger appropriations for the work of the bureaus; (3) the establishment of new bureaus.

It has been suggested that the Department of the Interior might very properly be utilized as a department of health.

There would be a bureau for the purpose of infant hygiene; expert physicians and scientists devoted to research combining to gather and make utilizable knowledge of how to decrease

the present appalling waste of baby-life. There would be a bureau of sanitation, a bureau of pure food, a bureau of health information. . . .

The national registration of physicians, druggists, and drug manufacturers, problems of quarantine and of labor conditions would be among the matters which the new department would take in charge.

The movement has received the indorsement of President Roosevelt, a letter from whom on the subject is printed with the article; of the late Grover Cleveland, of Archbishop Ireland, of President Eliot of Harvard, of Mr. Carnegie, and of a host of equally prominent citizens.

The chairman of the committee is Prof. Irving Fisher of Yale, who cured himself of tuberculosis, and who is naturally in sympathy with a movement which has for one of its objects the stamping out of the "white plague." Prof. Russell H. Chittenden, who strongly supports the league, says:

The purpose of our movement is, of course, not merely the establishment of national bureaus of health. That step is itself merely a means to an end. The end is the elevation of the health of the American people.

QUEBEC, A FOUNTAIN OF AMERICAN LIBERTY.

THE presence of Americans at the recent Tercentennial Celebration at Quebec was singularly appropriate, according to Mr. H. Addington Bruce in the *North American Review;* for, he says, "as a historical heritage, Quebec is theirs fully as much as it belongs to the people of Canada."

It has exercised no less powerful an influence on their destinies than on the destinies of the Canadians. In fact, remote as the connection may seem, Quebec is well entitled to rank with Jamestown and Plymouth as a primal fountain of American liberty. In one way and another, almost from its beginning, it was a foremost factor in developing the ideals that culminated in the Declaration of Independence.

Very different motives inspired the Englishmen and the Frenchmen who braved the dangers of the Atlantic to take possession of the New World. The former sought homes; the latter, to amass wealth, prompted also by a love of adventure and by missionary zeal.

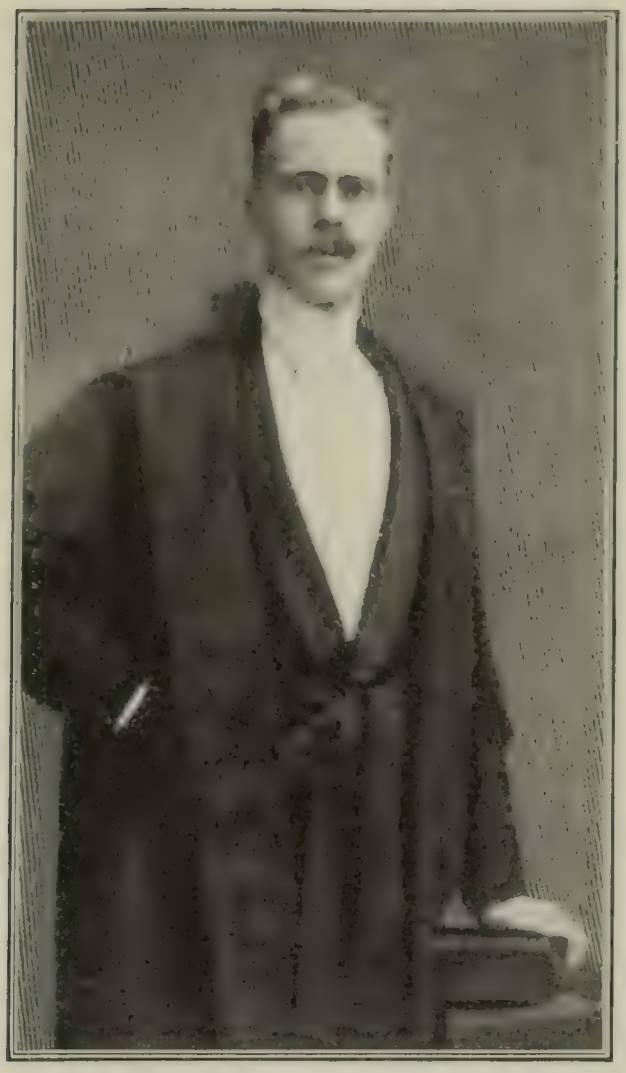
Consequently, while the English were content to establish themselves along the coast, the ardent French ranged far inland, making friends of the Indians, trafficking with them, Christianizing them. Champlain himself had little more than built his "habitations" at Quebec before he was up and off on the explorations that have contributed so greatly to his fame. Within a decade of the founding of Quebec, a Recollet friar was laboring among the Lake Huron savages. Only a few years more, and Nicolet was canoeing through Wisconsin's network of streams. A little later, and the black-gowned Jesuits were planting the Cross among the Indians of Sault Ste. Marie.

The English, on the other hand, made little attempt at westward expansion. Twenty years after the Jesuits had reached the Sault the English were but a few miles from the coast. In one particular, however,—the populating of their new territory,—they far outstripped the French. In the whole of Canada the white population scarcely exceeded 3000; in New England it was over 80,000. Something had to be done to prevent the English from overflowing into French territory. Troops and colonists were sent out from France, and with their advent a new impetus was given to what historians describe as the "hinterland movement." To oppose a barrier to the English, should they attempt to cross the Alleghanies, a chain of forts and trading-posts, to connect the mouth of the Mississippi with the mouth of the St. Lawrence, was to be created; and the first step was the building of Fort Frontenac in 1673. In the same year Marquette and Joliet made their famous voyage down the Mississippi.

In the Seventy Years' War, except in its later stages, the English colonists were left to fight their battles unaided by the mother country. Had aid been forthcoming, or had the colonists presented a united front, the war would soon have ended.

But such were the jealousies prevailing between colony and colony, union was out of the question. . . . The merchants and farmers who rallied to the defense were not slow to plan conquest on their own account. They saw clearly that the seat of French power in America was Quebec, and that until Quebec fell they could not hope for a lasting peace. As early as 1690,—acting, it is claimed, on the suggestion of Peter Schuyler, the first Mayor of Albany,—a colonial congress decided on a plan of campaign which had for its objective the capture of Quebec and the conquest of New France. This attempt failed, as did several similar "glorious enterprises."

Meanwhile the British colonists began to be alarmed at the progress of the hinterland movement; "but no representations could



HON. J. GEORGE GARNEAU, MAYOR OF QUEBEC.
(Who, Premier Laurier declares, "represents the best traditions of French Canada.")

move the home authorities to action." The colonists did not, however,

waste breath in vain reproaches, nor did they allow the French to overrun them. Instead, they began a hinterland movement of their own, intended to cripple their adversaries by diverting from Montreal and Quebec the rich fur trade of the interior, and to pave the way for trans-Alleghany settlement. And, keeping their eyes fixed steadfastly on Quebec as the source of all their woes, they awaited only a favorable opportunity to deal a crushing blow.

The chance came with the war of the Austrian Succession, when England and France were at odds again.

Aided by an English fleet, and led by a New England business man, 4000 colonial volunteers fought their way into the Cape Breton fortress of Louisburg. "On to Quebec!" was then their cry. In the end not only were the colonists left to shift for themselves . . . but Louisburg was given back to the French.

Soon, however, England was forced to act in the colonists' behalf, on her own account, if not for her love of the colonies. In 1753 orders were sent to the colonial governors to repel, by force if necessary, any invasion of English territory, and within a year young George Washington was sent into the western wilds to fire the shot which announced to the world that the bitterly contested Seven Years' War had entered on its last stage.

Without recapitulating the story of the struggle that ended with the fall of Quebec, we may note the part that the colonists played in it:

They were battling in defense of their homes, and to them must be given a large share of credit for the triumph ultimately achieved. . . . The colonies put into the field more troops than the mother country. Of the 7000 men who marched with Forbes to the reduction of Fort Duquesne 5000 were volunteers from Pennsylvania and Virginia. Bradstreet's contingent that mastered the ancient Fort Frontenac was recruited mostly from New England and New York. Upon colonials, again, fell the burden of defending the western frontiers against the attacks of the Indian allies of the French. It was thus that Washington got the military training which availed him so well a few years afterward.

Military training, however, was only one of the minor benefits accruing to the colonists from their seventy years of effort to win Quebec and thereby rid themselves of the French incubus. The long-continued struggle had developed in them to a conspicuous degree the spirit of self-reliance and self-confidence. It had helped them to appreciate their innate strength, and had conjoined with the influence of their wilderness environment to foster the qualities of alertness and resourcefulness. Over and above all this, it had brought them far, however unconsciously, on the road to independence, by opening their eyes to the deep-rooted selfishness of the mother country.

In 1775, when war could no longer be averted, they invited the Canadians to unite with them to throw off the English yoke, but Canada remained loyal. Friendly efforts failing, the Arnold-Montgomery expedition was undertaken.

This is usually described as a gigantic failure, . . . yet it was also of tremendous profit to the American cause. When Benedict Arnold was beaten back from Quebec's grim walls, he did not at once give over an attempt that had cost the brave Montgomery his life. Instead, he patiently laid siege to the city, holding it in close investment until the arrival of English reinforcements in 1776. . . . It is perhaps no exaggeration to say that the manner in which Arnold conducted his retreat from Quebec was the saving of his country. So that, failure though the invasion was, it forms another and not the least impressive chapter in the story of Quebec's contribution to the making of the United States.

LOUIS FRÉCHETTE, "POET OF CANADA."

LOUIS FRÉCHETTE, who died recently, was born in Levis, Province of Quebec, in 1839. After graduating from the Seminary of Quebec he studied law. His first poems were written in 1858. "Fleurs Boreales," published in 1881, were awarded the honors of the Prix Montyou. M. Fréchette wrote both prose and poetry, but to his poetry he owed the greater part of his glory.

In August last, at a public séance of the "Immortals," in Paris, Camille Doucet, speaking for the Academy of France, "proclaimed" the Canadian poet, who that day had become the laureate of the French Academy. The applause was general. I remember even now, says a writer in *Les Annales* (Paris), the cry: "Is he here? May we see him?" heard when the secretary recalled the notable past of the poet whose work, "Poésies Canadiennes," the Academy had just crowned. Camille Doucet on that occasion made an eloquent speech, in the course of which he said of Fréchette:

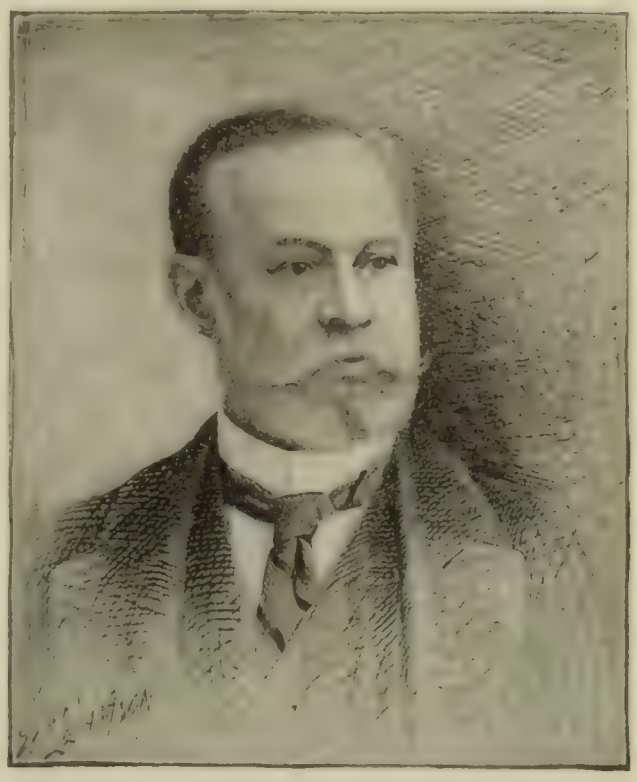
> Still young, he has had the honor to represent the County of Levis in the Federal Parliament. To-day he belongs to literature only. We know him only by his verse, but Canada knows him by prose as well as poetry, and Montreal has received with enthusiasm the great drama written by him. It is in French, gentlemen, that they speak and think in that land once French,—the land we love, the land that loves us.

When the audience cried, "Is he here? May we see him?" Fréchette was modestly hiding among the people, "tasting with grateful delight the joy of his public welcome. But almost immediately after he had received the recompense awarded by the Academy he set out from France for Canada, sick unto death."

From Columbus to Rial, Louis Fréchette collected, one by one, the gems of his literary reminiscences. He was the poet of a strong, national initiative.

> All Canada's beginnings are draped with the graceful imagery of his fancy. He stood with the laborers on the first harvest-fields of a virgin land. He hailed the triumph of Montreal. He assisted in the long and determined struggles between the English and the colonists of France in that tenacious and superb war where French soldiers struggled with the British regiments for the country discovered by the French sailors, the country where France had planted her sword beside the Cross.

According to the writer already quoted, Louis Fréchette was one of the few voices



THE LATE LOUIS FRÉCHETTE.
(The popular French Canadian poet.)

of literature that vibrated in sympathy with French sorrow over the loss of her American domain. In his writings we see not only the patriotic Canadian, but the traditions of old France. We quote again from the article in the *Annales:*

> To the Canadian, France means: Our mother. They say to the man just landing: "Do you come from home?" The past of France is their past. It is the time of times of their own people. At the public gatherings they fly a hundred French flags to one English flag. In 1870, our trial time, every sorrow, every humiliation of France, was marked in Canada by increasing numbers of volunteers clamoring to be permitted to embark for our defense, the defense of France,—ours and theirs. Louis Fréchette's was the voice that vibrated in sympathy with our loss of Canada and our humiliation at home.

An English-Canadian Tribute.

In the editorial department of the *Canadian Magazine* there is an appreciative tribute in the course of which the editor declares: "No one will dispute that for a generation Dr. Fréchette was the most conspicuous literary figure in Canada, and that his death leaves even now no rival in French Canadian poetry. . . . No Canadian, whatever his ancestral extraction, but will be proud to claim Dr. Fréchette as a countryman."

ARE AMERICANS REALLY LOVERS OF THE DOLLAR?

MUCH has been said about the wonderful energy of the American business man, and his love of the almighty dollar. Every stranger who visits these shores stands amazed before the eternal rush and swirl in which he finds himself, and goes home to reflect on it all, and to marvel that Americans do not all die young. Now comes a plaint from France, that country of gayety: "Do you Americans think of nothing but business? Can you never stop your incessant hurrying, even to sleep? What is it all for, anyhow?" To this Mr. Hugues Le Roux, a recent visitor to America, after observing the methods, feels qualified to reply. In his article in *La Revue*, he takes the Frenchman on a little adventure with him.

Let us suppose you are entering the harbor of New York for the first time. Enveloped in a golden haze you see gigantic buildings of all shapes and heights outlined against the sky. What feudal city of the Middle Ages is this, you ask, where each lord has raised his citadel higher than his neighbor, the better to scan the horizon from afar? Or is it to cause anxiety, or to awaken respect among men? You are the first on the gangplank, and you ask yourself with secret trepidation: "Has the New York fever seized me yet?" Not so soon, my French friend. What seems to you haste is to the American but a leisurely calm. Hardly have you set foot upon the dock when a voice that admits of no reply calls out: "Step lively! Move on!"

There is sounded the watchword of New York, so different from the coaxing: "Come, let us hurry, please," of the French capital. However, unless you wish to be pushed aside, jostled, or even trodden underfoot, you must obey the stern injunction and "move along" with the crowd. You see every one apparently running like ants in all directions. What is the cause? you wonder in alarm. That? why, that is only the New York walk, my friend.

Everywhere you see signs promising to do a host of things "while you wait." The tailor presses your suit, the hatter blocks your hat, the shoemaker repairs your shoes, and all "while you wait." Often the scene in a barbershop is a most amusing one. An American lounges in a huge chair while a man shaves him, another cuts his hair, a bootblack shines his shoes, and his hands are given over to the services of a manicure. If "step lively" is the first exclamation a stranger hears on landing, "quick" is the second. Scattered everywhere in the business district you may read this alluring promise above restaurants as the sole guaranty of the culinary attractions: "Quick Lunch." This is not the country of "All or Nothing," but the realm of "Quick or Nothing." The American is born "quick," grows up "quick," works "quick," eats "quick," makes up his mind "quick," gets rich "quick," and dies "quick." May I add that he is buried "quick," for the very funeral processions go through the streets "quick."

And yet in the midst of all this turmoil and hustle, the very center and cause of it all, the business man himself, is calm and unperturbed. If he speaks, it is in monosyllables, for beneath his quiet exterior he is thinking deeply. Besides, he is following the "rules" compiled by an eminent business man from his vast experience. Those that apply to conversation are: 1. Have something to say. 2. Say it. 3. Then be quiet.

In France every man of the world has a general culture, and can converse intelligently on many subjects. But the American business man disclaims this superficial knowledge, and claims that the point is not to know many things, but to know one thing thoroughly, and to use that knowledge to advantage. Money, like oil, will not mix.

The ultimate aims of the Frenchman and the American are as far removed as the two poles, continues M. Le Roux. From time immemorial the Frenchman has been polite, courteous, trying to please and to win hearts; whereas the American has been active, "on the go," and has tried to make money. He eliminates all pursuits and interests that would tend to distract him from his one love, —the dollar,—toward which he must ceaselessly bend all his energies.

What is the use of culture and education? Andrew Carnegie and Henry Clews are agreed in saying that a man who has taken a university degree is practically worthless in business. He does not stand half the chance of advancement as the small office boy, who starts in, at fourteen years of age, to sweep and run errands, because his extra culture will not allow him to start at the bottom of the ladder and work up. The average age that the "self-made man" started in business has been found to be sixteen and a half years.

Even outside the gilded circle of millionaires, in the world of letters, there may be found examples of that intensity of purpose, that firm faith that whoso applies himself closely to business will gain the desired end that marks the true American. The well-loved Mark Twain, at the age of sixty, suffered a considerable monetary loss. Son of a business man, brother of a business man, rather than accept the proffered gift of his

millions of appreciative readers, he preferred to tempt fortune again. He has triumphed over fate, and is once more clear of debt.

Another example is Augustus Thomas, who counts his income in millions to-day. At the age of twelve he started to earn money to enable his father to realize his fondest dream.

"Happy country where such miracles can happen and happy people where such strength of purpose can dominate a child of twelve!"

THE RELIGION OF THE SENSIBLE AMERICAN.

UNDER this unique caption President David Starr Jordan, of Leland Stanford Junior University, sets forth "the attitude and belief of one, no longer living, whom he claimed within the inner circle of his friendship,—one whose religion was justified in a rare power of swaying the lives of American men and women toward high thoughts and sturdy righteousness." This friend died in 1898, and various memoranda of his notes and talks were brought together by his companions. It is from these notes and from his own recollections that President Jordan has reconstructed "a religion which, however incomplete, is not far from the ideal toward which the average sensible American of to-day is tending."

The positive phase of this religion is "the feeling of being at home in God's universe." The sensible American believes that this is God's world, none other more so.

> This is no alien world. Our fathers were born here and our fathers' fathers, and the same hand has led them on from the primordial sandstones of Quebec to the foundations of our own Republic. . . . We are links in an eternal chain, and the little part assigned to us is the conquest of *Here* and *Now*. Wisdom is knowing what to do next; virtue is doing it.

In the notes of his deceased friend Dr. Jordan found these words: "It is a great event in a boy's life when he can say, 'I and my father are one.' It is greater when a man finds that he can keep step with God; that he wants to do, and can do, the things that God is doing."

> Men think if they can only find God they will get faith from him. It is not faith in God that they need, but faith in themselves. God will do his part. . . . No man ever falls away from God without having first fallen away from himself. . . . Faith in self is to be won, like any other power, by persistent and constant exercise. You, and you alone, hold the key to your heaven.

The sensible American finds that the teachings of Jesus, though reported in fragments only, and with many variants and perhaps additions, bear their own witness. He also "recognizes no antagonism between the words of Jesus and the teachings of human experience, which . . . we call science." To him the creeds are mostly harmless. "They will not harm us if we do not read them." As his religion is not regulated by "intellectual assent to any proposition in metaphysics," he is not alarmed about the Higher Criticism. Enough that is genuine goes back to the teachings of Jesus.

To the sensible American it is clear that the religion of Jesus has no necessary connection with church or state, save as church and state may be permeated with its spirit. As regards doctrine, "Calvinism and Arminianism are trifling matters compared with the fact that God is and that we may call Him our Father." No man can embrace the religion of another; it must become his own first, or else he can not receive it. Emotionalism as such is no necessary attribute of religion. Love must purify itself by action. "If thou lovest Me, feed My lambs." There is no other way in which emotion can impinge on religion.

With regard to immortality,

> Our American does not ask for immortality as a debt due him from the Creator. In this good world he has had his rewards and punishments, each sufficient for the day thereof. He asks no final compensation for dreary and dispiriting service. He has known no such service. . . . If immortality is not inevitable, it is no part of his religion to crave it or to demand it. He realizes the futility of an appeal to science. . . . Outside the field of knowledge and of reason, outside of science and of philosophy, lies the belief in immortality.

President Jordan gives the basis of the sensible American's belief in his friend's own words:

> No fact is actually *known* unless it is stated in mathematical terms, and with questions such as this no demonstration is possible. Attempts to demonstrate degrade the truth. . . . Immortality is not proved by nature. Nature is full of suggestions and analogies, but analogies prove nothing. Homologies prove. If we can trace a fundamental identity between any element of our character and the nature of God, if we can find in the beneficent heart of God a homology to the heart of man, we have commenced to build the

demonstration of the fact of immortality. . . . When a man begins to live,—love, deny himself, serve,—he understands what life is, and knows that death cannot touch it. . . . Love for men,—and this soon passes into love for God, —lifts man above the physical, where death is, into the spiritual life everlasting.

Thus the religion of the sensible American is one of faith and love and action,—"a confidence that the universe of matter and of spirit is a reality, that its functions are in wise hands, for the time being our own hands as well as the hand of God, and our part is to help our brother organisms to more abounding life."

SLEEP MOVEMENTS IN PLANTS.

PLANTS are capable of moving to an extent that varies in different species. Parts of some plants move as energetically as any animals, while in other instances the motions are hardly noticeable. Some of the higher plants are capable of making movements following each other in rhythmic succession in response to external conditions, that approach the purposeful movements of animals, although there is nothing in plant structure comparable with the nervous system of an animal for the direction of intelligent movements.

Among the commonest rhythmic motions are the sleep movements, so-called, probably, because they are made at night, for there is not necessarily anything suggestive of rest in the position assumed, and leaves and blossoms asleep stand straight up just as frequently as they droop.

Some plants never make any of these motions, while others, including many of the commonest plants and weeds, assume very noticeable sleep positions. Young seedlings, clover, sensitive plants, and many others, assume definite sleep positions every night, and the leaves, or needles, of many evergreens take different positions during their long winter sleep.

In discussing the origin of these movements in the last number of the *Biologischer Centralblatt,* Dr. W. Pfeffer says the first thing to consider is whether they are caused by changes of external conditions which recur daily in rhythmic succession, or whether there is an inherent impulse, acquired through heredity, toward constant rhythmic action which the regular sequence of external conditions, such as changes in illumination, temperature, etc., serves as a stimulus to set in action.

When, for experiment, plants were subjected to unusual conditions by varying the time of exposure to light or darkness, the sleep movements were affected. Under the influence of continuous illumination they gradually became less marked and finally stopped altogether. But after complete cessation they could be called forth again by subjecting the plants to either natural or artificial daily rhythmic changes of light and darkness, showing that the power of rhythmic movement had merely become dormant, but was not lost.

Evidently the motions were self-regulated, but were set going in response to perfect constancy in the recurrence of external conditions. If such plants are lighted at night and kept in darkness during the day so that the time of alternation of light and darkness is changed about twelve hours, there is a corresponding change in the time of occurrence of the sleep movements and the recovery from them.

Leaflets of the acacia, however, maintained their rhythmic movements at the usual time when exposed to a change of light and darkness made every six or every four hours, and even continued undisturbed when kept either under constant illumination or in continuous darkness, showing that in this species the impulse toward a certain definite rhythm is very deep seated.

A plant of a different species under a six-hour, and again under a three-hour, alternation of light and darkness took up a very perfect corresponding rhythm.

No doubt sleep movements would occur in plants raised from the seed of any species having this innate tendency, and all of the plants would assume their sleep positions at the same time, even if part of the seeds grew nearby and the others came from plants growing in distant countries, where the sun rises twelve hours later. In every instance the reactions are brought on by the stimulus of a rhythmic recurrence of certain changes in external conditions, even when the movements have previously ceased under the effect of a constant illumination.

Plants of this type have developed a high degree of sensitiveness, which is hereditary.

THE AUTHOR OF "L'ABBE CONSTANTIN."



LUDOVIC HALÉVY.

A NUMBER of the most eminent French literary and critical writers have been contributing articles to the weekly and daily press on the life and works of the late dramatic author, Ludovic Halévy. Besides having written a number of light plays on literary and social topics, which have become known all over the world, Halévy made himself famous by the authorship of two or three books, "L'Abbe Constantin" being the most celebrated. With Meilhac he produced the following well-known plays: "La Belle Héléne," "Barbe Bleu," "La Vie Parisienne," "La Grande Duchesse," "Frou-Frou," "La Perichole," "La Petite Marquise," and many others written to the music of Bizet, Offenbach, and Le Coq. For many years Halévy, who was born in Paris on New Year's Day, 1834, acted as clerk of the Chamber of Deputies. He was never, however, active politically. In a recent article in the *Annales,* Jules Claretie characterized Halévy in these words:

The playwright who taught gayety to the people drew from the people's lives material for his benevolence. Professor of patient kindness, doctor of the law of charity,—these are the titles of the man whose goodness was neither a mask nor an affectation. Ludovic Halévy's was the kindness and the charity unconscious of self.

As to his style, M. Lemaitre says in an article in the same number of the *Annales:*

They are among the jewels of our dramatic literature. The persons in the drama are very much alive, and of a life close to ours. Woman holds the best place. Perhaps no author has better depicted women,—their "nerves," their inconsequence, and their feminine grace. The little actresses and their small world, the mothers, the distant relations, the servants,—they are all pretty, and either sly, stupid, bright, greedy, defeitful, or something else equally human.

Speaking of the instant popular success of "L'Abbe Constantin," M. Lemaitre says:

The entire company of the Academy received it gratefully, and for the first time Halévy tasted the sweets of appreciation for his own individual work. In one hour he had surpassed his collaborator Meilhac and received immortality from the hands of the "Forty Immortals."

This writer concludes by characterizing the joint productions of Halévy and Meilhac in these words:

Meilhac was very witty and of very fine sensibilities. Halévy was very wise and very sympathetic, very kind. Both knew all sides of life and all the peculiarities and foibles of humanity. They had had the experience which makes for philosophy. They saw all that is ridiculous in life and in society, but they were powerless to stamp out in themselves the weaknesses that they railed at when they found them in others. Ambition, glory, the trials and the petty miseries of artists and literary men, their own life, the common effort, the partnership classed as "literary marriage,"—what is it all but a type of that other marriage whose party of the first part and party of the second part are separated by selfishness or bad temper? . . . The plays written by Meilhac and Halévy have no thesis; they make no pretention; they do not aspire to social satire. They are peculiar and original. At first sight we can tell that they are new. The work is not in any way like the work begun by Scribe and continued by Sardou; it does not resemble the work of Augier or the work of Labiche. Labiche's dramatic writings contain a good deal of burlesque of Dudert and Lausanne, and, almost always, or almost wholly, they exclude woman. Whatever declarations to the contrary may be made, they keep within the limitations of the farce. Halévy set out very modestly. He began by writing vaudeville, but by one stroke, as it seemed to us who were watching him, he invented a comedy less tense and less prim than that of Dumas or of Augier. His composition was less artificial and less bookish.

THE FIRST WOMAN CANDIDATE FOR THE PARIS MUNICIPAL COUNCIL.



JEANNE LALOË AND MAITRE MARIA VERONE.
(Two French suffragettes.)

THE "suffragette" has made her appearance in France. In an article in a recent number of the Leipzig *Illustrirte Zeitung* an account is given of the new pioneer of the woman movement in France.

"To inoculate women with the principles of Socialist education, and to attain genuine universal suffrage." This was the task which the *Société pour l'éducation, naturelle des femmes,* founded in 1848 by three authoresses, Désirée Gray, Anaïs Ségalas, Sabine-Casimir-Amable Tastu, set itself. The acquisition of political rights for women was taken very seriously by them,—so seriously, that perhaps it became ridiculous, and as there is nothing, as is well known, more fatal in France than the ridiculous, the *Société* went to pieces just as swiftly as its sister undertakings, the *Club de l'Emancipation des femmes* and the *Club fraternel des Lingères;* the *Club des Femmes* alone, where lectures were given by male advocates of the woman question, enjoyed a longer lease of life.

For a series of years, however, Frenchwomen seemed to have left all propaganda for political rights to their American, German, and English sisters. Suddenly,—as a woman is apt to do all things,—the suffragette looms up in Paris, too. No one knew why, how, and whence she came. But it was ascertained that she was handsome, and that was sufficient. Until then the conviction prevailed that a suffragette must necessarily be a scarecrow. The gallant Parisians came within an ace, that bright Sunday, the 3d of May, of inducting the first Madam,—a Mademoiselle, indeed,—into the City Hall by their votes.

Jeanne Laloë, formerly a teacher, then a journalist, still on the sunny side of thirty, set up her candidacy as a Socialist in the Quartier Saint-Georges, on the slope of Montmartre, in opposition to the Nationalist Paul Escudier, and obtained over 900 votes.

This result naturally rejoices all the suffragettes who have flocked around Jeanne Laloë. For, of course, the 900 votes were cast by men, and not by women. Should there, then, be already among the men of Paris so many adherents of woman's rights? It cost the candidate no little trouble to carry on her election propaganda with any show of legality. In the first place, it was necessary to obtain permission from the prefecture of the Seine for an electoral assembly in a schoolhouse designated for the purpose, and the officials there maintained that the law regarding municipal elections ignored women. Fortunately, however, several woman lawyers of the Court of Appeals stood by her; for example, Maître Maria Verone, who, in barrister's gown, cap jauntily perched on her curly head, with pretty, rosy lips, is in the habit of delivering trenchant speeches in the Palais de Justice. Maria Verona pointed out that the election law of 1884 states that all French people take part in municipal elections, and no one dare affirm that the women are not French. It is not known what proved more seductive to the officials of the prefecture, the legal lore or the rosy lips of the advocate. At any rate, they conceded the *préau,* the schoolhouse.

A meeting was held to which there thronged 10,000 people. Only a small portion of those in the hall could see with their own eyes that Mlle. Jeanne Laloë was comely and fair enough to represent the interests of the district.

She bravely mounted a table and promised the "citizens" that she would, like a good housekeeper, carry order into the City Hall. The interruptions of a facetious individual put her, it is true, somewhat out of countenance, but on the whole she created a very favorable impression,—particularly because, in her elegant tailor-made gown, she declared that she was a daughter of the masses. A female doctor and several woman lawyers spoke after she had concluded. Then, as a sole adversary, a youth declaimed against

women in general, and in favor of the Nationalist Escudier in particular, whereupon an old man with venerable gray hair assured the smiling audience that he no longer made any distinction between the sexes. With a single voice in opposition, the following motion was adopted: "The electors of the Quartier St. Georges, assembled in legal form . . . pledge themselves, in voting for the citizen Laloë, to organize a double movement,—feminist and republican." The immense crowd outside, that awaited the end of the meeting, escorted Jeanne Laloë and her female staff home, singing to the melody of the "Lampion": *"C'est Lalo, Lalo, Lalo, C'est Laloë qu'il nous faut."*

Sad to say, the Nationalist Escudier, who was up for re-election, possessed so little gallantry that on the following day he had all the election placards of his opponent plastered over with his own larger ones. He affirmed, moreover, that the candidacy of a woman was entirely illegal since it was no longer the law of 1884 but that of 1885 which was in force, and since the latter distinctly states that all *citoyens* are entitled to the suffrage; civil rights, however, are the privilege of men alone. This opinion was shared by the Premier, Clémenceau, who interdicted the admission of women on Sunday to the polling places, even for purposes of supervision, and who ordered that the votes cast for women, though they should be counted, should be declared void. The suffragettes attempted to gain forcible access to the polls and in one instance even overthrew the urn, but it did not help them. "However, they are very well satisfied with the number of votes cast for Jeanne Laloë, and are desirous to continue the campaign, so that finally a woman, too, may become a Deputy or Senator in the French Republic."

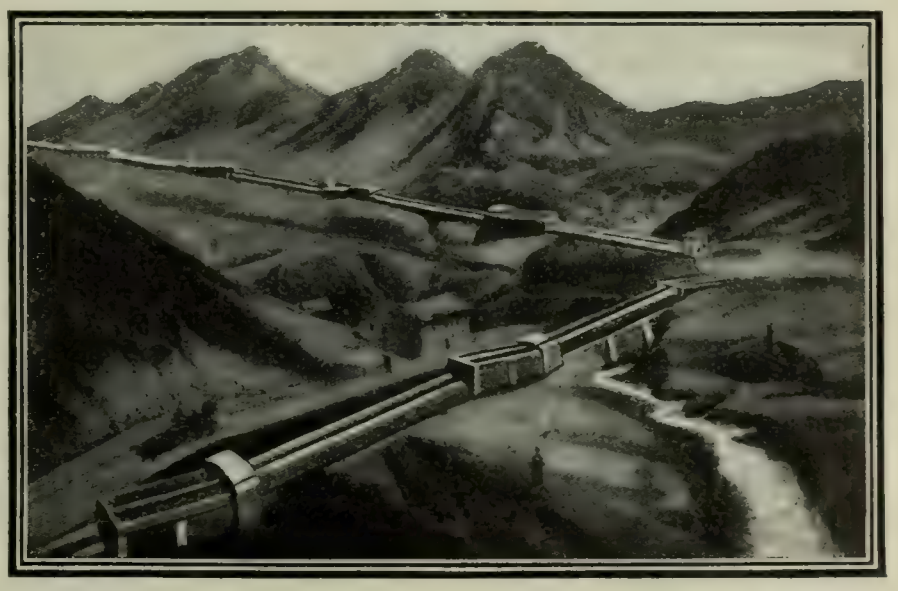
A CANAL OVER THE ALPS.

THE people of upper Italy are at present greatly interested in a plan to bring their country into much closer connection with the industrial and commercial centers of Germany and Switzerland. This project is nothing more nor less than a canal from Genoa, in Italy, to Basel, in Switzerland. A journey from one of these points to the other, however, necessitates crossing the Alps.

A writer in a recent number of the *Deutscher Hausschatz* (Munich), in describing the project, pays great tribute to the inventive genius of present-day Italians, especially in matters of the application of water power. They are continually striving, he says, to open new resources to compensate for what Nature has denied their fatherland. He claims, further, that the time is not far distant when not only artists and architects, but engineers also, will go to Italy for purposes of study.

A certain hydraulic engineer named Caminada is responsible for this new canal scheme. He proposes, not to tunnel under the mountains, as the railway lines do, but to have his canal go over the Alps. This may at first seem impossible, but (the German writer reminds us) engineers have long since learned to overcome the greatest difficulties with the aid of sluices and locks. When greatest differences in altitude have to be overcome they make use of sluices arranged after the manner of a flight of steps. Such a system has already been used along the Trolhätta Falls, in Sweden, where there are seven locks, so arranged that a vessel can move up the river against the rapids.

On this principle Caminada bases his project. A new development, however, is that where the greatest differences in altitude are to be overcome, tubes or conduits of very large diameter are to be used instead of the open sluices. On the bottom of the conduit line guide rails are set, to which the vessel is attached and on which it



THE PROJECTED CANAL OVER THE ALPS.

is rolled forward. The tubes are on an oblique plane, and when water is allowed to run into the chamber the vessel is slowly driven (or floated) forward through the water on the rail. Since, therefore, the lower end of the second block is a direct continuation of the upper end of the first, the vessel can at once enter the next chamber, the upper gates of the first automatically closing behind it. The same method holds good, of course, until the highest level is reached. There are two separate tubes in this part of the system, arranged side by side and connected with each other. The water from one chamber is used to fill the one lying alongside. Great quantities of water will be thus saved, with a consequent saving in cost of operation. It is intended that two vessels shall enter this part of the system at the same time, one going up the mountain side and the other coming down.

At its extreme height (some 7500 feet above sea level) the canal changes to a tunnel ten miles long, and passes under Splügen Pass.

The total length of the projected canal is approximately 370 miles, of which about 143 miles are existing waterways and 27 miles are to be on the conduit plan. Genoa is the starting point of the system, from whence it leads to Alexandria, Milan, and to the Lake of Como, at the northerly end of which the Alps division begins. On the Swiss side of the Alps it passes through Chur (in the valley of the Rhein), the Lake of Constance, Schaffhausen, and, finally, ends at Basel. It is proposed that various branches also be constructed to connect with the main system, which would open up a much larger territory.

In conclusion, the writer of the article in the *Deutscher Hausschatz* says that while Caminada has proven the practicability of his project it still remains to be seen whether he can persuade capitalists to put up the necessary funds for the construction of such a canal system. The estimated cost of carrying out the project is $120,000,000, and this German writer doubts if Italian and Swiss capital can be interested to this extent. Nevertheless, there is great enthusiasm in Italy over the proposition, and a model of the canal has been exhibited at the Accademia dei Lincei, of Rome, the foremost scientific body of the country.

SYDNEY, THE QUEEN CITY OF AUSTRALIA.

IT is 120 years since Captain Arthur Phillip, landing from an English man-of-war, unfurled the Union Jack, and proclaimed the supremacy of Great Britain over the territory on which now stands the capital of the colony of New South Wales. The first encampment, says Mr. Walter D. White, in *Munsey's Magazine* for July, was formed at the head of a cove, which was named in honor of Viscount Sydney, a member of the younger Pitt's government. The site was determined by the proximity of a stream of fresh water. "Those who built the rude huts of the infant settlement had no conception of its future greatness, and they made no adequate provision for its growth; yet for nearly half a century practically the whole trade of Australia was carried on either in Sydney or through it."

The chief glory of Sydney is its magnificent harbor, of which the late Anthony Trollope once wrote: "I despair of being able to convey to any reader my own idea of its beauty." The entrance to it from the Pacific Ocean is through a remarkable gap, about three-quarters of a mile wide, in cliffs 400 to 500 feet high, known as "The Heads." The winding, land-locked harbor itself extends for 14 miles, and is large enough and deep enough to accommodate all the navies of the world. It has been well described as "a string of lovely lakes running into innumerable small bays; here and there a fort on bold headlands; wooded hills with shores feathered with gum and other trees; and verdant slopes dotted with villas and handsome houses." Here will ride at anchor the American fleet, when, in acceptance of the invitation extended by the Australian Government, it reaches the southern island-continent.

Sydney is rapidly advancing to a leading place among the commercial ports of the world.

In 1906 . . . its imports were valued at $140,000,000 and its exports at $175,000,000. Its wonderful harbor draws to itself mammoth ocean liners and sailing vessels from every land and every sea. Steamers from London, Southampton, Bremen, Marseilles, New York, Vancouver, San Francisco, Hong Kong, Manila, Singapore, and from some of the cities of South America, find rest within its land-locked sea; and they cast their anchors, so to speak, in the very center of the city.

Next to the harbor, perhaps the most noteworthy feature of Sydney is its aggregation of parks, which cover a quarter of the whole area of the city.

The largest of all is the Centennial Park, comprising nearly a square mile of land. . . . At a few miles distance are two great national



A VIEW IN THE CENTRAL BUSINESS DISTRICT OF SYDNEY, WHICH NOW OCCUPIES THE SITE OF CAPTAIN ARTHUR PHILLIP'S ORIGINAL SETTLEMENT—MARTIN PLACE, FROM GEORGE STREET.

parks, each of them containing more than 30,000 acres, intersected by rivers, and with wide areas left in their natural condition. One may pass into deep, silent gorges, thickly set with tall forest trees, while here and there are table-lands starred with the beautiful Australian flora.

The public buildings of the city are excelled only by those of its younger rival, Melbourne. Its town hall is considered to be one of the finest in the world, while the Botanic Gardens "represent a masterstroke of landscape artistry." The names of many of the streets bear testimony to the historical association of the colony with the mother country; as, for example, George Street, Pitt Street, and Elizabeth Street, named after England's greatest queen before Victoria.

It is often remarked that Australians and Americans are more alike than any other of the great groups of the English-speaking race; yet, as a rule, Americans know very little of Australia.

The spirit of the Australian Commonwealth resembles that of the American republic. In Australia one finds the same activity and independence, the same originality and self-reliance. . . . As in America, the spirit of democracy is in the ascendant. Wages are high, public education is widely diffused, and the Australian women have the same freedom from conventional control which their American sisters enjoy. . . . As in America, some of the states of Australia have given the franchise to women. In South Australia women may sit in Parliament.

In one respect Australians differ from Americans: they are more given to holidays and outdoor enjoyment.

When they work, they work hard; but they devote much time to amusements and open-air sports. This is perhaps due to the mildness of the climate, which in summer has an average of little more than 70 degrees, while in winter the mercury seldom falls below 54 degrees. . . . At the great holiday festivals the whole population swarms down to the sunny beaches and wave-washed reefs which actually form a part of the pleasure-loving city itself. . . . Sydney well justifies the two names which are popularly given to it,—"The City of the Beautiful Harbor" and "The Carnival City."

When the Panama Canal shall have been completed, Sydney,—and all Australia, in fact,—will be brought into much closer contact with the great eastern ports of the United States. The distance which now separates them will be shortened by many thousands of miles, and the terrors of the long voyage around Cape Horn will become a tradition of the past.

Sydney demonstrates the extraordinary possibilities of the young commonwealth.

To quote Mr. White further:

The thoughtful stranger who visits Australia for the first time is most impressed by the extraordinary possibilities of the young commonwealth. The southwestern country contains millions of acres of fruitful land which can grow almost anything, and which are still practically undeveloped. Here is room for great sheep and cattle ranches, for farms whose rich virgin soil has not yet been scratched by the hoe or cloven by the plow. Even such great cities as Sydney and Melbourne, each with a population of more than half a million souls, represents only a beginning. The same is still more true of Adelaide, and Hobart, and Brisbane. The time is not far distant when Australia's potential wealth will become actual, and when the sparsely settled continent will teem with a great population.

Like the United States, Australia is a land of opportunity, "a land that faces not the past, but a splendid and triumphant future."

SEVEN THOUSAND NEW ACRES WON FOR ITALY.

THE *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) prints a very interesting article about a great engineering feat in Italy, which affords the most piquant contrast to such undertakings in our new America, for it was Julius Cæsar who first conceived the idea of draining Lake Fucino, and the project was not completely accomplished until the year 1876, although under the Emperor Claudius the great enterprise was partially successful.

Cæsar felt the need of a large tract in the center of Italy where grain could be raised, and had among his other vast plans, the notion of cutting an outlet to Lake Fucino through Mt. Salviano, which should lower the level of lake, and leave a zone of new land around it. Cæsar, however, had rather too much else to do to begin on this enterprise, which lay dormant but not forgotten under several emperors until Claudius (A.D. 41-54), the father of Nero. He gave the task into the hands of an engineer named Narcissus, who with none of the modern means for such vast labor, with nothing but pickaxes and chisels and plenty of labor, achieved success at the end of eleven years of incessant toil. In order to get air into his tunnel and to transport building material he

was obliged to run shafts to the top of the mountain, and to make galleries leading down to the main subterranean tunnel, a picture of which is shown herewith.

Something of the prodigious labor expended in Roman times on this undertaking can be guessed, when we are informed that Narcissus made the tunnel almost four miles long, and that he employed 30,000 slaves during eleven years. The opening of the tunnel was marked by a great gladiatorial show in the form of a naval battle on the lake in which 19,000 sailors took part, of whom a large number were killed. The Imperial court drew near the entrance to the great gallery and the water was let in. According to Tacitus the great volume of water leaped forward down the tunnel with such a terrifying uproar that everybody in sight was sure that some dreadful accident had occurred and fled in confusion: a scene that was exactly reproduced eighteen centuries or more later at the opening of the Torlonia tunnel. The subsequent history of Claudius' tunnel can be briefly told.

Italy of later days had no money or time to keep up properly so great a piece of engineering, and little by little the tunnel filled up and the Lake began to rise. The snows from the surrounding mountains melted and poured down into the old basin, and there was Lake Fucino again, almost as if there had been no Claudius. In the times of the Bourbons a few feeble attempts at restoration were made, in which fresh proof was discovered that papier-mache carvings and other frauds practiced in State undertakings are by no means modern inventions. Narcissus and his assistants knew as well as modern contractors how to cheat the treasury. Only a part of the great tunnel had been made of masonry—and that part was still in perfectly good condition—but there were gaps where the roof was supported simply by rough wooden beams, for which, of course, the Imperial treasury had paid the price of good stone walls. Finally in the nineteenth century a stock company was formed to drain the lake, of which Prince Alexander Torlonia owned more than half the stock. The work was begun, but very soon the enormous expense of the undertaking frightened the stockholders, who clamored to give it up. Prince Torlonia bought them all out and continued single handed to strive to realize his dream. For years he poured his vast wealth into the apparently bottomless pit, and the question all over Italy was, "Will Torlonia drain the lake dry before the lake drains Torlonia dry?" The man's strong tenacious face as shown in the portrait here reproduced gives the right answer to that question.

For twenty years 4000 men worked steadily in this forgotten valley, visited by their indomitable leader. In April, 1862, the main tunnel was complete, and with the same wild yell that had terrified the court of Claudius, the waters of Lake Fucino again dashed beneath the mountain, leaving the lake bed, as Narcissus had left it, with a central lake eighteen miles in circuit. But this did not satisfy Torlonia. His army of men dug a great canal which was to collect most of the remaining water, colossal dykes were erected in the mud, watched by hundreds of sentinels day and night, and finally the last refuge of the lake was violated and the water streamed out with a roar as of thunder which lasted two months. There now remained an immense plain of mud which for many months it was impossible to work, but little by little the mud dried into fertile,—and, astonishing thing for Italy,—absolutely virgin soil.

Then began the reward of the Torlonia family. There were about 7000 acres of this valuable land favorably located with an excellent temperate climate. Of this the Torlonias kept 500 acres as private estate and the rest was all let and sublet and sublet again. There are now in what was Lake Fucino over 125 miles of good roads, lined with poplars. The lake returned to the national government about 70,000 lira (about $14,000) a year. Its dry bed now produces about 5,000,000 lira worth of agricultural products. Where 200 fishermen made a scanty living out of the lake, 12,000 inhabitants find lucrative occupation in the same spot.

Even after the great strain of the engineering problems was over, all this was not accomplished without difficulty and many discouragements. It was hard to persuade the limited, obstinate peasants to try any new methods, or to risk their small capital in a new enterprise, for, as always in Italy, the venturesome ones had gone to America. Now, however, there are over 5000 small tenants who successfully work their holdings. There are also tracts where farming is done on a large scale, great quantities of sugar beets being raised for a refinery which is one of the finest in Italy, and which turns out about 8,000,000 pounds of sugar a year. Quantities of sheep are raised; the region has proved wonderfully suitable for fine stock breeding and raising; but it is worthy of note that Julius Cæsar's dream is realized in that it is as a producer of grain that the ex-lake Fucino is most noteworthy. Five hundred and fifty million bushels of grain are raised in each year off the ground which was for so many centuries lost to Italy.

THE NEW MONUMENT TO BACH IN LEIPZIG.



THE BACH MONUMENT IN LEIPZIG.
(Unveiled last month with appropriate ceremonies.)

AMID ceremonies lasting three days, there was unveiled at Leipzig some weeks ago a notable, heroic statue of Johann Sebastian Bach, the founder of German music. It seemed eminently fitting, a piece of poetic justice, that his memory should be specially honored on a spot which, though not his native town, was "the birth-place of the greatest of his immortal works, where he wrought so long and was so sorely harassed by the unappreciative authorities above him." The statue, which is of bronze and about four meters in height, stands upon a pedestal of about three meters; an organ, as being most strikingly representative of the musician's art, is placed behind him, greatly enhancing the artistic effect. The monument occupies a point near the Church and School of St. Thomas, where Bach worked as cantor and teacher for twenty-seven years before he had attained fame as a composer.

A recent issue of the *Illustrirte Zeitung* of Leipzig devotes three articles to the great musician, accompanied by reproductions of the monument, of various portraits, etc. We glean some of the interesting points.

Leipzig already possessed a memorial of Bach, erected chiefly through the exertions of Felix Mendelssohn, the reviver of Bach, in 1843, but it was rather a well-meaning, pious effort than an adequate monument.

It was in 1894, when the little Church of St. Thomas was rebuilt, that Bach's remains (supposed to have been scattered) were exhumed in what up to 1850 had been the churchyard. Seffner, the noted German sculptor, reproduced, by the aid of the recovered skull and some well-authenticated portraits, a wonderful bust of the musician, and the idea was then conceived of incorporating this masterpiece of portraiture in a monument which should give commensurate expression to the greatness of Bach and to the reverence in which Leipzig holds his memory. This project was consummated only after many struggles, other proposals having likewise been suggested. The powerful figure may be accounted one of the happiest of Seffner's creations. Those who have followed his career and observed his peculiar excellence in portraiture, note the sculptor's love and joy, the persistent creative force, of which this statue seems an embodiment.

Bach was thirty-eight when, being one of the aspirants for the position of cantor of the Church of St. Thomas, he submitted a trial production.

He had already been organist at Arnstadt and Mühlhausen, organist and chamber-musician at the court of Weimar, and for six years Kapellmeister for the great musical connoisseur, Prince Leopold of Anhalt-Köthen. Besides some twenty church cantatas, he had composed the greater part of his work for organ and clavichord, his solos for the violin and cello, the Saint John Passion, etc. The ignorance of the Town Council, to which he was responsible, of his real worth would seem as inconceivable as their slight appreciation of his later glorious religious music, did we not reflect that an artist's fame and achievements were not then spread by means of journals and printed music, and that, assuredly, there were no real connoisseurs of art in council, consistory, or the governing bodies of universities. His income,—a fluctuating one dependent upon the number of marriage and funeral services,—amounted to about $160.00 a year, and this with a numerous family! The unrecognized genius suffered all manner of annoyances from the authorities, but no small part of these may be traced to his intractable nature.

Bach, though obliged to compose for the demands of the day, was, nevertheless, the "greatest musician of the future, of all time, —his tones were destined to an imperishable revival."

We have no clear knowledge of the fate of Bach's music the first fifty years after his death; apparently it received but little attention. Surely, however, around the opening of the nineteenth century, there was a genuine revival of Bach's music, and Leipzig became from the outset the center of all Bach's publications, re-

searches, and undertakings. An inspiring estimate of the master, by Forkel, published there in 1802, gave a special impetus to further study, and in 1850, a hundred years after Bach's death, a Bach Society was founded in the city, whose object it was to publish his complete works. And the musical world was amazed at this wealth of art treasure, which, appearing in various forms, including cheap popular editions, could gain a wide circulation. Besides, the Riedel-Verein of Leipzig, organized in 1854, undertook the production of Bach's music on a fine scale; while "The Passion According to Saint Matthew" is generally given in the town on Good Friday. Outside of the publishing house of Breitkopf and Härtel, which issued the great collected edition of Bach's works, excellent biographies of the master, etc., other firms, too, in Leipzig are zealously engaged in bringing out carefully revised, expensive and cheap editions of Bach's compositions.

Thus, "in the course of the nineteenth century, Johann Sebastian Bach and Leipzig came to be fused into a single conception, of which the Bach Memorial, making us forget old neglect and stimulating us to further, faithful culture of art, may be regarded as the beauteous symbol."

A DEFENSE OF THE GANGES.

THAT marvelous and mighty river of India, the Ganges, sacred to the Hindus as a goddess with gift of healing, is at all times an extremely interesting natural exhibit in a country filled with peculiar and unique natural phenomena.

Its source is odd, being in an ice cave at the foot of a snow bed in the Himalayas, at a point over 10,000 feet above the sea. In length it is tremendous, extending 1500 miles, to the Bay of Bengal. It embodies, during its swift downward course, several other big rivers, notably the Jumna and the Gogra. On its banks are numerous famous large cities, including Calcutta, Patna, Benares and Allahabad. Agra and Delhi are on Jumna's banks, above its junction with the Ganges. It accumulates, in its course, yearly, millions of tons of mud and sand from flowed districts and deposits solid matter in similar quantities along its banks.

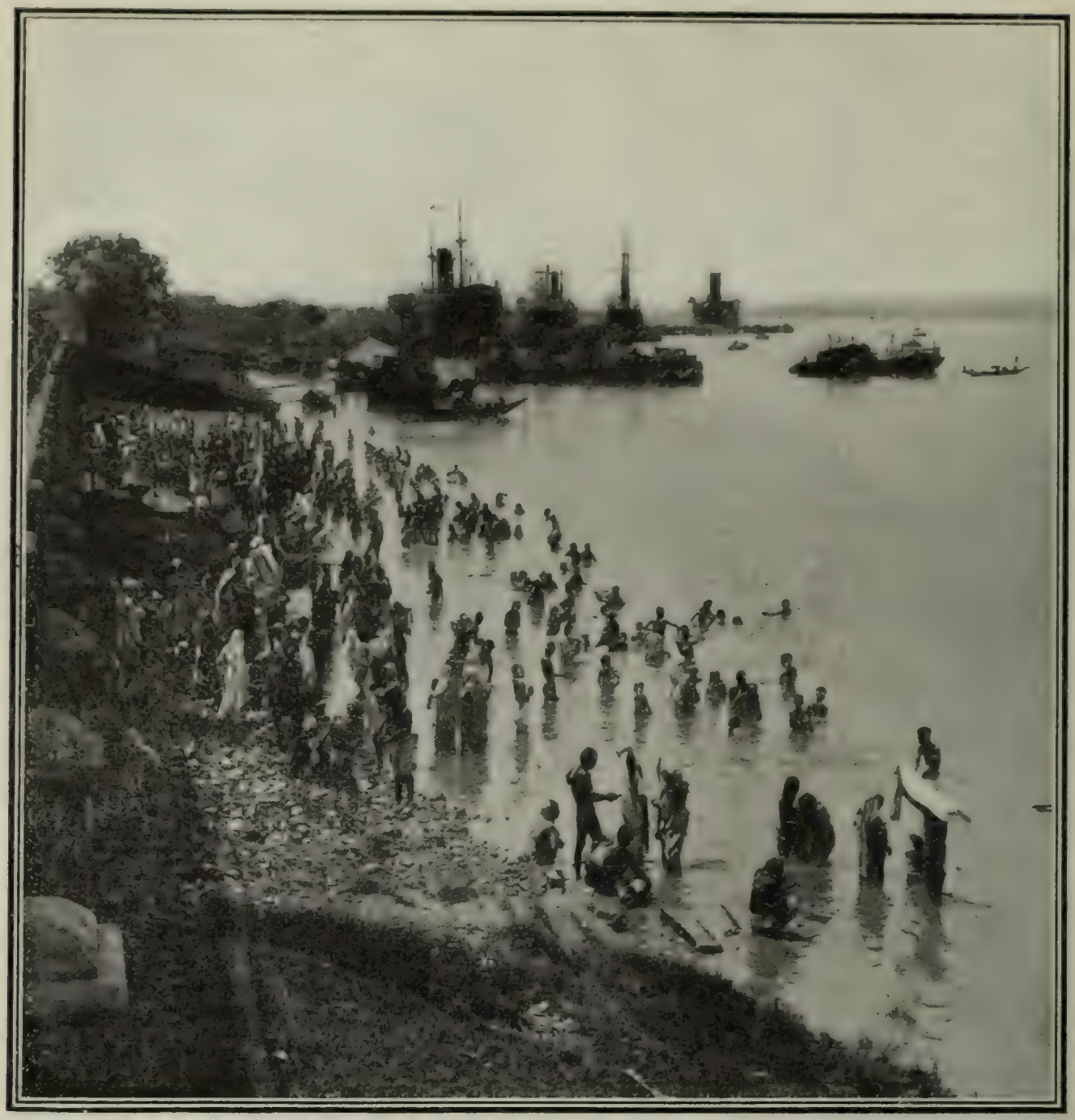
The Hindus, for hundreds,—yes, thousands,—of years have resorted to its banks to bathe there and be healed of various diseases. They take their dying relatives to its banks from all parts of Hindustan, and after the souls of these relatives have departed, the surviving ones cast the bodies into the Ganges to consecrate them and prepare them for the Hindu hereafter. Millions of Hindus perform their year's ablutions on the Ganges' brink. Hundreds of others built dwellings and live at all times within stone's throw of the sacred river.

If that sort of thing were to happen on the banks of the Hudson, the Mississippi or the Missouri rivers, the chances are that the natives of New Jersey and New York living along or visiting these banks would distinctly refuse to use the water for drinking and cooking purposes, but in India it is different. They not only drink it, but they put it in casks and ship it long distances. Any of the reigning Hindu princes receiving a cask of this delicious beverage becomes so overcome with joy that he and his retinue take a day off from their ordinary devotions in order to celebrate the event, and bathe. The Hindu traveler from distant parts, after visiting the Ganges and paying a Brahmin priest for the privilege of a drink from some particularly sacred spot or section, goes home and can have the highest office in the gift of the people without even suggesting anything of the kind himself.

Baba Bharati, in the *Light of India,* declares that the Ganges is worthy of approval from every point of view. He quotes E. H. Henkin, who wrote "Following the Equator," and Mark Twain, who has written several humorous works, to the effect that the Ganges water will kill cholera germs at the rate of millions in six hours, and is therefore a splended antiseptic.

The Baba is very indignant with some of his Hindu brethren who favor the English view of the polluted character of Ganges water. He observes:

> If patriotism means love of one's country, their patriotism means love of their country in her present topographical, political and, lately, economic aspects only. They have little sympathy with the Hindu religion or social or domestic institutions, most parts of which they are crying out to reform. All these Anglicized patriots are reformers of almost all their national institutions, and it strikes one as a wonder sometimes how they have condescended to enlist themselves among the Hindus. Some of them have a perfect abhorrence for their countrymen who worship the Ganges as a cleanser of human sins and impurities, mental and physical. It is with the utmost disgust that they hear an orthodox Hindu say that the Ganges flows from out the Lotus Feet of Vishnoo, which means that



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BATHING IN THE "HOLY GANGES," CALCUTTA.

it is a current of the purest Divine Energy which courses down through all the upper spheres until it touches the top of the Himalayas, when it turns into water and flows through the heart of the land of the gods,—which India is,—to the seas, and through the sea-water its vibrations touch all the lands of the earth that are.

Babá Bharati quotes thus from Mr. Henkin, who had written a pamphlet on "The Cause and Prevention of Cholera":

Since I originally wrote this pamphlet I have discovered that the water of the Ganges and the Jumna is hostile to the growth of the cholera microbe, not only owing to the absence of food materials, but also owing to the actual presence of an antiseptic that has the power of destroying this microbe. At present I can make no suggestion as to the origin of this mysterious antiseptic.

The Hindu sage pays his respects to the Anglicized member of his race who takes the English view of the Ganges in these words:

Almost all the millions of Hindus not only believe in the holiness of the Ganges and hold her in the highest reverence, but cleanse their body and soul by having a dip in her water daily or whenever convenient if she is near by. But the "educated" Hindu, whose consciousness is Anglicized out of all recognition, shares the opinion of his Western teachers that the holiness of that mighty stream is the merest superstition. A greater moral slave of the English and "Englishism" there is not in the world than this Anglicized Hindu.

IS A NEW CHINA BEING BORN?

THE idea of a revolutionary upheaval in China in the sense in which the word revolution is used in civilized Europe must sound as strange to the American reader as the idea of chronic revolution in Russia has become familiar. Yet "Parvus," in a recent article in the *Neue Zeit*, depicts a condition of things in that "land of no-change" which forcibly recalls the anti-revolutionary days in France.

The difference between China and any European country historically and institutionally is so great that even a modern revolution with all the appurtenances of a modern revolution cannot have the same significance in China as the revolutions of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries had in Europe. But the resemblances are sufficiently striking to indicate how far China has followed the example of Japan in the direction of Europeanization. A constitution and even a republic have become common demands of the Chinese populace, and the methods by which these demands are made and the general principles in the name of which they are made, all have a familiar ring.

A French missionary writing in the *Bulletin des Missions Catholiques*, says:

> Even if events in China in the last few years have become monotonous as far as outer appearances are concerned, they are by no means so in reality if we take into consideration the growing movement among the yellow races of an ideal of independence and political liberty. This ideal is still somewhat obscure and vague, but the words progress, civilization, justice, national autonomy are again acquiring in this country a special significance which they seem to have lost among the old nations of Europe. One sees progress in China everywhere; progress in the large cities where for twenty years hundreds of steamers have been entering their ports, where since but yesterday many railroads converge, where quays, schools, and apothecaries are built, where the tradesman in a richly folded robe and with an engaging smile on his face offers you a glass of adulterated champagne . . . where even the man of the plow, now more acquainted with the European and with his ideas, approaches you in a most reverential manner, and, finally, where even among the village population you often hear intelligent remarks that owe their origin to experimental science.

So conservative an organ as the German *Marine-Rundschau* concludes an article emanating from the German circles in China with these significant words:

> It seems to-day as if in consequence of the Russo-Japanese war the great Asiatic states are seized with an ardor for further political development, and in a direction which is in diametrical opposition to all their old historical traditions. Considering the bloody crises which have marked the paths toward constitutional government in the Occident one cannot help reaching the conclusion that Asia offers a much more fertile field for political catastrophes. At any rate, in China the conditions for a political upheaval are present in great abundance.



YUAN SHIH-KAI, VICEROY OF CHIHLI.
(The most powerful man in China.)

The language of the *Evangelische Missions-Magazin* is still more ominous:

> Already the loud knocking of the revolution is heard at the gates. The discontent of the kingdom is making itself too audible, the demand for the "promised constitution" has become too energetic to make it possible for China to continue in its old way. Edicts ordering reforms are not wanting. But the native press speaks with gloomy pessimism of such declarations, it utterly mistrusts the government, and does not credit it with a real desire to make any changes except such as will redound to the greater misery of its subjects.

The attitude of the Chinese Government toward the popular revolutionary movement is vacillating. At one moment it seems to be anxious to encourage the rising spirit of independence, and holds out hopes for a constitution, and at the next moment it is seized with panic, grows more reactionary than



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WU TING FANG.

(Chinese Minister to the United States.)

ever, and prohibits all political discussion by the press or in public meeting.

By abolishing the old system of education and examinations, which for over 2000 years since Confucius have formed the basis of the Chinese official career, the Chinese Government has undermined its own strength and prepared the field for revolutionary ideas. The education now required of the Chinese official is a Western education. For this purpose the Chinese Government sent many thousands of young men to Japan, America, England and Germany. On returning home these students organized a "literary movement," through which they agitate among the masses and offer opposition to the government, not stopping short even of bomb-throwing and furnishing a close analogy in their activity to the political movement of the Russian "intelligenzia."

As a result of the propaganda by the intellectuals and the gradual introduction of European ideas and business and industrial methods, all classes of China are clamoring for radical reforms. The rich population in the province of Yunnan formed themselves into a party by the name of "For Life or Death," with the watchword: "We will either live as free citizens, not as the beasts and slaves of France and England, or we will die together!" In the provinces of Kwantung and Kwangsi the inhabitants are in a state of open revolt, and bands of rebels, equipped with modern weapons, offer frequent battle to the government troops. The press of Indo-China keeps up a continual agitation for the overthrow of the Mandschu dynasty, and for the establishment of a Chinese republic. The starving peasants rise in rebellion, and the salt smugglers band together into armies and engage in regular battles with the government troops. Even the powerful governors of the provinces openly side with the people against the central government.

Recently when the government contemplated a loan from England for the construction of a railroad, it adopted a course unprecedented in the history of China. It called together representatives from the provinces that would be affected by the projected railway to discuss the loan with them and obtain their opinions. But, instead of discussing the loan, the assembled representatives declared themselves "the beginning of a parliament." "We have come here," they said, "to assert our rights against the government, and we will dare to fight for them to the end." A popular agitation arose and numerous meetings were held, with the result that the government issued an edict forbidding public meetings and restricting the freedom of the press.

But the press can no longer be restrained. Every day new papers spring up in Peking, and they read like Russian underground literature after the Bloody Sunday in St. Petersburg. The following are characteristic passages from the Chinese press of to-day:

> The third edict reminds the people that they are still without a constitution, and that the people have no voice. It is clear that the government wants to preserve its absolutism and is unqualifiedly opposed to a constitution. It is only the fear of revolution that keeps it from saying so openly. They tell us over and over again that the people are not ripe for a constitution. But when evidence to the contrary is offered it is accounted as a crime. In Peking the principle of Louis XIV. holds good: "*L'état c'est moi!*" But the people are no longer as timid as they used to be. The government is forcing them to a war which will benefit the government least of all. The Chinese people have from olden times fought for their rights against the government, but have always had to yield to violence. Now, too, they are fighting for their rights, and it is proposed again to hold them down with violence. But the times have changed. The people must fight again. They can and will achieve victory.

Revolutionary conspirative societies are formed for establishing a republic in China, and the conspirators boldly spread proclama-

tions among the people with their own signatures attached.

Merchants and noblemen follow the example of the revolutionists and they, too, appeal to the people with political manifestoes. In a circular published by them they call upon the people to unite with them for the common welfare of China:

The men of caste and the merchants of Shanghai have come together, conscious of the solidarity of the Chinese people, and their voices have found an echo both among the educated and the small people. The pack-carriers in Hongchu, the cake bakers in Shao-hsing, the actors of the lowest class, and the servant girls display a noble rivalry and strive to outdo one another in contributing their mite. Hitherto what the European understood by China was the Chinese government as the embodiment of the Chinese idea of state. As to the people themselves, we knew only of the coolies or of the Boxer uprisings, which seemed to us to be mere barbaric revolts against foreigners. Now, however, progress and modern cities have made their appearance. We learn that there is a public opinion in China which takes issue on political questions, a press which creates opposition to the government, and the words revolution and constitution which have marked the history of Europe for more than a century now resound for the first time from the far eastern shores of Asia. China appears for the first time before the civilized world as a political nation, as a people with a political will. This is a historic factor which must henceforth be reckoned with in any estimate of Chinese events.

THE COMMERCIAL MORALITY OF THE JAPANESE.

IT is remarkable how seldom one meets in the business world,—especially in America,—with any one who has a good word to say for the merchants of the land of the Rising Sun. The Chinese, it is said, are thoroughly reliable, but the Japanese,—well, they will "skin" you, if they can. The alleged low commercial morality of the Japanese forms the subject of two recent articles in American magazines, by Prof. George Trumbull Ladd and Mr. Adachi Kinnosuke, respectively.

Professor Ladd has made three separate journeys to Japan for the purpose of lecturing in that country, his last visit extending from the summer of 1906 to the autumn of 1907. Since his return, he has "striven to counteract the misunderstandings and hostile feelings with regard to Japan which have been manifested in parts of the United States." Writing in the July *Century* he discusses the question, how much of truth there is in the charge "that the business morals of the Japanese are of a relatively low order, not only when compared with the greater commercial nations of the Western world, but even with their neighbors in the Orient, the Chinese."

That there is much truth in the charge, would, he thinks, be confessed and deplored by "the more intelligent, fair-minded, and patriotic of the Japanese themselves."

The case is by no means, however, as it is ordinarily represented by the complainants, who in general are as lacking in experience as they are in ability to take an impersonal and unselfish, not to say sympathetic, point of view.

He cites the assertion, frequently made, that every bank in Japan is in all its more responsible positions manned by Chinese, the inference being that the Japanese cannot trust their countrymen in such positions. The professor cannot imagine how "such a foolish and absolutely false statement could have arisen." He himself never saw a Chinese employee in any responsible position in a Japanese bank; and a friend of his who has spent his life in Japan "confidently avowed the same experience."

After all just apologies are made, however, we are forced back to the conclusion that the Japanese commercial classes with whom foreigners have hitherto come into contact have not the same high standard of business honor which characterizes the same classes in the United States or in northern Europe, or even in the treaty ports of China.

What, now, is the explanation of this difference? The first and most profound reason is historical. Until very recently, "men of honor" in Japan would not and could not engage in business.

They despised rather than sought the making of money. The shopkeeper, with the innkeeper, the maker of saké, the Buddhist monk, and the peasant, belonged to the lower order,—not so low, indeed, as the actor, but still quite distinctly apart from the Samurai, or knightly gentlemen, whose rule of life was the *bushido*. To this day, the more old-fashioned of the upper-class families in Japan feel somewhat degraded by the intermarriage with them of a son or a daughter.

From these Samurai have come the great Japanese statesmen and warriors. They went abroad "to observe, investigate, and study"; and on their return to their fatherland filled all the responsible positions in the army and navy.

Of late years, but only of late years, they have turned themselves to business and to the economical development of their country . . . and the sons of the classes formerly counted of the lowest are being carefully educated in the ways, and in the accepted morals, of the modern business world. All this is rapidly changing, and indeed has already profoundly modified, the character of the business morals of Japan.

It is commonly charged that the Japanese have scanty regard for the sacredness of a contract. The Oriental, says Professor Ladd, does not appreciate this business device as we do.

Get a true Japanese . . . committed to you under a pledge of personal fidelity, and there is no other man on the face of the earth whom you may trust more implicitly, and to the death if need be, than him. But it requires education and experience to make the same man understand why he should be faithful to a form of words which he has perhaps not thoroughly comprehended at the beginning.

Then, again, in the petty transactions of trade the traditional method of the Orient is different from that of the Western world. "The well-to-do tourist should pay for tea and cakes ten times as much as his coolie. One price for all seems absurd."

Buyer and seller begin at a notable distance from each other, and courteously maneuver until they succeed in meeting on some middle ground. Thus neither thinks of the transactions as tainted with dishonesty or falsehood.

These conditions are rapidly being changed. When Professor Ladd was asked to speak at the Government Fisheries Institute, he inquired, "On what shall I speak?" "About practical morals," was the reply. On every hand are to be noted the desire to adopt the highest standards of business morality and the determination to extend to the whole nation "that spirit which has characterized in the past their own best types of manhood."

Views of a Japanese.

Mr. Kinnosuke, who is the proprietor and editor of *The Far East,* is a Japanese of American training, and a writer of force and elegance. He is naturally somewhat more outspoken in behalf of his countrymen. Being questioned by a New York business man in regard to the alleged low commercial morality of his countrymen, he replied:

"You are at the head of one of the largest industrial corporations in the United States. Suppose to-morrow you were to adopt the Jew-peddler policy of 'skinning' everybody that may come to deal with you. For how many years do you suppose your company would hold its high standard of to-day?"

"Oh, not many years,—two or three years perhaps."

"Let me give you a few figures from a simple statistical table. In 1868 the foreign commerce of Nippon amounted in value to 15,553,473 yen. In 1907 the foreign trade of Nippon amounted to 924,708,000 yen. . . . Pray read the significance of these figures."

Patent violation is another charge that is made against the Japanese. Mr. Kinnosuke was recently talking with a representative of one of the great press-makers in the world. We quote him at this point:

Said he to me: "We sent to Japan one of these great presses,—just one, and we haven't sent another."

"Why?" I said.

"Oh, you know, you fellows over there are so clever that you just buy one machine of us, and when you get it over there you take it to pieces and at once begin to manufacture the whole thing."

Mr. Kinnosuke then pointed out that not more than four persons in the whole of Japan could possibly make use of such a large press, and that it would cost millions of dollars to install the plant for manufacturing the various parts of this great press,—a ridiculous outlay for so few machines.

Mr. Kinnosuke was taunted also with the allegation that the Japanese were obliged to employ Chinamen in their banks. For answer, he took his detractor down to Wall Street to the branch of the Yokohama Specie Bank. "Can you see a single Chinaman here?" he asked. "Sure," came the reply, "you can't fool me. Those two boys over there are Chinese who have cut off their queues"(!). As Mr. Kinnosuke says, "Let an Anglo-Saxon get an idea into his head, and it is very difficult to get it out." He also mentions the interesting fact that the Chinese employed in counting money have a remarkable faculty for detecting false coin.

Like Professor Ladd, Mr. Kinnosuke sees the dawn of a new order of things. The children of the Samurai class no longer compose quatrains and look down on the "men of the market," but they hold to-day the vast majority of the greater mercantile enterprises of the empire.

Many a Western critic still insists upon judging the Nippon merchant of to-day by the standard of fifty years ago. That is wrong. The order of the thing is not that the Nippon merchant should change so much as that the Western critic should lay aside his antiquated standard of judgment.

IVORY HUNTING, ITS ROMANCE AND REALITIES.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S announcement of his projected excursion into the wilds of Africa, in search of big game, lends especial interest to Mr. Berkeley Hutton's "Story of an Ivory Hunter," in *Everybody's Magazine* for July. Ivory hunting, he says, is the one profession "that a man can't be trained into, or kicked into, or driven into, unless he's born into it as well."

You can make a lawyer, or a merchant, or a banker, or even a doctor, or a sailor out of almost any man of average intelligence, but you can't make a hunter out of him unless he was born a hunter. . . . Many a time I've come back from a trip, half dead with fever, swearing that I'm done with the business for good. And some bright day, in six months, or even three, the smell of the jungle gets into my nostrils; through all the roar of the street traffic I hear the squeal of an elephant, or the coughing roar of a lion's challenge—and that settles the business. Back I go again, knowing precisely what is coming—the sweating days, and the chilling nights, the torments of insects and of thirst, the risks, the hardships, and the privations. For once Africa has laid her spell upon a man, he's hers forever.

Mr. Hutton at 20 found himself stranded in London, and meeting at the docks a man who was "going out after ivory," he joined the expedition; and he has been "going out after ivory" ever since. He recommends heavy guns for beginners. The black powder they burn makes a dense cloud of smoke; and to this fact many a hunter owes his life. "An elephant's eyesight is notoriously defective, and when enraged and wounded, he will often charge this cloud of smoke, and so give the hunter time to escape." Mr. Hutton's own life was saved in this way. He had wounded an elephant, and the recoil of his gun caused him to trip on a vine, and he fell on his back. The brute charged, and, the hunter having dropped his gun in his fall, it seemed that nothing on earth could save his life. His gun-bearer, on the opposite side of the trail, happened to step on a rotten log which gave way with him, and in his fall his gun went off. Instantly the elephant wheeled and charged for the smoke, while the hunter got out of range "as quickly as the Lord would let him." Five hours later he killed the animal, whose tusks were fully seven feet long.

In Mr. Hutton's opinion, rhineroceros hunting is the most dangerous of all hunting, bar none.



THIS TUSK IS MORE THAN TEN FEET LONG, AND IS WORTH NEARLY $2000.

The beast seems possessed of a sort of devilish cunning; you can't fool him as you can an elephant, nor intimidate him as you can a lion. . . . He does not wait to be attacked. . . . Like the elephant, he can show a speed that is nothing short of marvelous. . . . Once you rouse him, you must kill him, or he'll kill you, if he can get you.

No matter how experienced the white man may be in hunting, he has to depend upon the "ignorant native." Mr. Hutton admits that his own knowledge is as a child's compared with that of a black "boy."

In the dry season his instinct, inherited from untold generations, teaches him the best spots to find or to dig for water; in the rainy season he knows how best to cross the treacherous morasses and quaking bogs. He knows leaves that, compounded, will allay the stings of insects; he knows how to keep off vermin by the use of herbs whose smell Europeans can scarcely stand.

But when the hunter has secured his ivory, his troubles are only just beginning. Each of the tusks weighs from 50 to 250 pounds. Assuming that he has got together $100,000 worth of fine ivory, this will be represented by a load of from 50,000 to 60,000 pounds. The hunter will probably

be "a thousand miles from anywhere"; there are no railroads, no wheeled vehicles, and no draft animals. The ivory has to be transported on the backs of native porters; and these think nothing of dropping their loads and deserting. Sometimes, too, they are shot down by hostile tribes from ambushes.

Tusks may sometimes be obtained from native kings "for an old scarlet military tunic with a bit of gold braid on it," and one weighing nearly 200 pounds was exchanged "for a demoralized cocked hat and a pair of purple satin corsets."

When finally the ivory reaches the coast, it is shipped to London or to Antwerp; practically the whole supply is disposed of through two firms in those cities. The price is steadily advancing. The herds are rapidly diminishing, while the demands of Europe and America are increasing. Recently ivory sold in London at $453 a hundredweight; and pretty soon, Mr. Hutton thinks, choice ivory will command $15,000 a ton, and there will be precious little in the market at that.

The finest of all ivory is used in the manufacture of billiard balls, of which only 5 can be made from one tusk, so that 10 balls represent one elephant. In a certain warehouse in London may be seen a store of 20,000 billiard balls, which means that 2000 elephants were slaughtered to supply them. The same firm "calls on the African forests for 100 elephants a month," so that it will be readily seen how necessary have the "big game" laws become.

Mr. Hutton says there is good money in the business. For years his income has ranged from $10,000 to $20,000 a year.

THE LACK OF TEACHERS IN THE GERMAN SCHOOLS.

IN a recent article in the *Neue Zeit,* Otto Kühle quotes some interesting figures regarding the German public schools, which reveal a condition in the elementary schools of the classic land of learning no less deplorable than in those of our own country. Germany is chronically suffering from lack of an adequate teaching force, and the school statistics prove that this evil has been constantly on the increase for the last thirty years.

In 1901 there were in the whole of Germany 59,348 public schools, with 146,530 teachers and 8,924,779 pupils. This makes on an average 61 pupils to 1 teacher. Under normal conditions there should be at least 1 teacher to every 30 pupils, which would necessitate an increase in the present teaching force of at least 150,000.

In the higher schools these conditions do not exist. In Prussia during the years 1904 and 1905 the ratio of teacher to student was 1 to 17, or 18 in the high schools, and 1 to 15 or 16 in the gymnasia.

In addition to this absolute deficiency there is also a relative scarcity which the Prussian ministry of education explains as due to the impossibility of finding available teachers. In 1901, 1828 teachers' positions were left unoccupied, and this number increased in 1906 to 3049.

In 1882 there were 2879 schools in Germany with only one-half day attendance, in 1891 this number rose to 5078, and in 1901 to 7873. Moreover, the statistics of 1901 showed that 1,255,922 children in 8815 schools were so distributed that in the one-grade schools there were more than 80 children in a class, in the two and three grade schools, 70, and in the half-day schools, 60; that is, 22.15 per cent. of all the school children are taught in overcrowded school rooms. In 692 classes the attendance in each class ranged from 120 pupils to 236. Even Saxony, which enjoys the reputation of having the best schools in Germany, showed by the latest statistics a record of 415 public schools, more than half the entire number of the Kingdom, with classes of 80 pupils and over. The maximum number prescribed by law is 60 pupils for a class. Considered in detail the figures are still more appalling. One hundred and seven schools had 80 to 90 pupils in a class, 87 numbered up to 110, 59 to 120 in a class, and 61 schools averaged an attendance per class of from 130 to 174.

In Würtemberg the paucity of teachers has been so greatly on the increase since 1901 that the minister of education, Weizsäcker, in a recent utterance in the chamber characterized the condition of the schools as "unworthy of the state." A similar situation prevails in Hessen, especially in the industrial centers, where the growth of the working population has been so rapid that the school administration has proved itself utterly incapable of meeting the increased demands made upon it.

The chief causes of this paucity are the low salaries, and the strict, military-like discipline imposed upon the teachers, which often subjects them to humiliations from the higher school authorities. For many years it has been the endeavor of the liberal elements in Germany to secure legislative reform measures aiming at the removal of these evils. But the strongest political party, the Center, is opposed to any school reform. It fears

the influence of an improved public school system upon the sectarian schools, and as it represents chiefly the agricultural classes, whose interests in the main are in the farm laborers, it has nothing to gain from the extension of education among the masses.

Under these circumstances the liberals are compelled to resort merely to palliative measures, among which they advocate the increase of schools for teachers, the employment of as great a number as possible of women teachers, and the lowering of the standards of examination for teachers so as to permit students of intermediate schools and high schools to become teachers after a certain age.

The agitation for school reform is growing particularly strong among the teachers themselves, and at the last election for the Prussian Landtag they succeeded in raising this question to a political issue. In a program drawn up by the teachers of Prussia and submitted to the candidates for the Landtag they make the following demands:

(1) Increase of salary; (2) the abolition of ecclesiastical inspection; (3) reform in the school curriculum and in religious instruction; (4) decentralization of the school administration; (5) the abolition of all preparatory and privileged schools, and the free admission to the high schools of the more gifted students graduating.

EDUCATING OUR BOYS.

HAVING discussed, in recent numbers of *Lippincott's,* some of the merits and some of the shortcomings of private secondary education, Mr. Joseph M. Rogers treats, in a concluding paper, the whole subject in a broader manner; "for," as he says, "what affects the private school affects also the public school, its competitor."

One of the greatest educators of the country recently declared that "the progress and prosperity of the whole country are absolutely bound up in secondary education." It is estimated that there are nearly 1,000,000 boys and girls pursuing academic studies in our secondary schools, while in superior educational institutions the number is less than 200,000. Of the latter probably less than 30,000 are entirely engaged in academic study; the remainder are entered in professional and technical schools. Consequently it is upon the secondary schools that "the bulk of academic preparation for professional and technical study falls."

According to so eminent an authority as President Schurman, of Cornell University, "the spirit of the age is not favorable to the notion of liberal culture. . . Our youth frequent the gainful occupations. Our colleges of arts decline, while the scientific and technical schools are overcrowded." The college of liberal arts having practically ceased to perform its functions, there is nothing to fill the void except the secondary schools; and the anomaly exists, "that while the scope of these schools has been widened so as to include a curriculum which will prepare the student for entering college, at the same time boys and girls attending the preparatory schools are refusing in ever-increasing numbers to go to college, even though they demand a type of college training while in preparation for it."

On the question of vacations, Mr. Rogers says:

There is no just reason why the average boy or girl should not start to school early in September and remain until the middle or latter part of June, with two very brief vacation periods. . . To have a boy at home three weeks at Christmas time and two at Easter is simply dividing up the year in a way that injures the boy's mind, makes concentrated application difficult, and compels him to resort to all kinds of subterfuges to pass examinations.

Anticipating that he will be laughed at for the suggestion, Mr. Rogers contends that the boy needs more time for poetry. "How many boys," he asks, "read poetry nowadays except under compulsion? . . A course in Shakespearean literary anatomy or a few didactic dissections of poems, as often practiced, is worse than nothing at all." If only his tendencies be steered in the right direction, if only he be initiated into its beauties, the boy will, during his adolescent years, read poetry with avidity.

We all of us need more poetry in our lives. It makes better husbands and better wives, better fathers and better mothers. . . We sneer at the people of the Far East as being dreamers. . . . The East is the home of poetry, of romance, and action. . . . It developed and perfected the arts and sciences when Europe for centuries was submerged in barbarism and intellectual sloth.

Mr. Rogers pays a high tribute to "the noble band of men and women engaged in secondary education," who, he says, "are the peers of any men and women in the world. Their labors are intense, they are

underpaid, and their greatest handicap is that they have to work against the prejudice of patrons who want bricks made without straw, but insist on the full tale at the end of every session."

The secondary schools are called upon to do much of the work not only of the university but of the home circle as well. Mr. Rogers truly says: "The boy who does not get at home most of his education,—using the term in its widest sense,—is unfortunate." The majority of parents, however, do not realize what a serious problem education is, and how much their children's success in life depends on the thought the parents put into the problem.

> The man who takes his son into business watches over him with sedulous care: no detail is too slight to escape his observation, no amount of time and attention too great to bestow upon him so that he may learn the business in its petty details and its larger factors. But the same parent sends his boy to school and shuffles off his own paramount responsibilities upon the shoulders of the teacher, as he might present him with an umbrella.

Parents being unwilling to admit their full responsibilities in this matter, the State, the city, and the teachers have to take it up; and the parent measures the teacher by what he or she in this way does for his child. One result of this is that many of the ablest teachers are unpopular because they refuse to take up the burden imposed upon them by the parents, while many of the most popular educators are those who act more as parents than as pedagogues.

Mr. Rogers considers that our boys need to have more opportunity for thinking on their account; that more time should be given to developing the imaginative faculty. "If," he says, "a boy is to become a mere business machine, and nothing else, we had better at once close all our schools except those devoted to commercial instruction."

> He must divine the future, whether it have to do with an empire or a labor-saving machine. . . . The great cathedral, the mighty bridge, the great painting . . . are solely the result of imagination. . . . Every boy should be trained to become creative, no matter in what groove his life may run.

A DUTCH VIEW OF THE NORTH-SEA AGREEMENT.

AT a meeting of the representatives of Great Britain, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Denmark it was solemnly agreed that the North-Sea boundaries of the nations represented should be kept inviolate by each and all of the contracting parties, and that they should collectively and individually see to the faithful observance of this agreement.

How this treaty is regarded now by some of the leading thinkers in one of the countries concerned,—the Netherlands,—we gather from a recent issue of the *Amsterdammer*. One of their ablest writers treats the matter in this weekly in no euphemistic fashion, in the article from which we quote:

> The fact that, in case of war between Germany and France, and still more of war with France and England, the two latter nations would have to respect the seacoast of Holland, could prove no otherwise than advantageous to Germany. In the coast regions,—confining ourselves now only to the Netherlands,—are certainly not to be reckoned the eastern boundaries, with Lunburg, Brabant, and what further, for any reason whatever, might be of advantage to further the designs of Germany. Not a single penalty exists, moreover, for the infraction of the treaty; nay, the obligation of carrying out a joint resolution is not even mentioned.

According to this writer's opinion, therefore, Germany's hands are left perfectly free, notwithstanding this agreement.

> We certainly feel anything but comfortable under our close juxtaposition to the great German nation, while, at the same time, we are the happy possessors of rivers, harbors, and seacoasts which always have, and always will, notwithstanding its repeated denials, make our mighty neighbor eager to remove the disadvantage of its lack of these by any means whatsoever. And we are sufficiently at home in history to know that powerful nations can do no other than take what they want whenever a favorable opportunity presents itself to do so. And when it is recalled how that mighty German nation has conducted itself toward Denmark, Alsace-Lorraine, and Poland; how in order to crush the latter utterly it treats this as if, in the treatment of the weak, the ideas of right, nobility, and magnanimity could be utterly ignored, the Netherlands may well be excused for looking upon any protestations of this peaceably disposed Emperor with utmost suspicion. But, notwithstanding all this, and much more that is destructive of sympathy in the direction in question, the notion that Holland stands in fear of Germany has little or no foundation. It knows happily but too well that for the present there is no danger of attack from that quarter, as long as the proportionate strength of England and France, on the one side, and of Germany, on the other, remains as it now is.

"Holland exists by the grace of England and France. In this the Dutch do not suffer themselves to be deceived."

As long as those two nations, taken together, remain too strong to permit of Germany's carrying out any hostile design toward Holland there is no need of any extra assurances on the part of Emperor Wilhelm. And therefore we affirm that the advancement of France and England as military powers is of more value to Holland than any dozen of North-Sea agreements originating in Germany.

THE AUSTRIAN ANABAPTISTS IN AMERICA.

THE prosperous communities of Anabaptists in South Dakota and elsewhere in North America have their traditions of sojourn in different lands. An interesting light is thrown on these traditions by a recent article of Herr Wolkan in the *Osterreichische Rundschau* (Vienna). The writer relates how, after cruel persecution by both Catholics and Protestants in Austria, Holland, and Switzerland, a portion of the Anabaptists found a peaceful temporary haven in Russia, and finally emigrated to the United States and Canada.

The Anabaptists in North America are followers of the reformer, Jacob Huter, who was burned at the stake in 1536. They came originally from Carinthia, in Austria, whence many were forced to emigrate in the eighteenth century.

The persecutions to which the Huterites were subjected broke up some of their communities. The chronicle states that "children were parted from father and mother for the sake of religion." In 1755 a number of Anabaptists were exiled to Transylvania, and after a long period of wandering were scattered over the entire country. In time they came together again, formed an organization, and the number of their followers increased. New attacks by the Catholic clergy led them to a new emigration, this time to Roumania. Sixty-seven of their number departed secretly for that country in 1767. The Russo-Turkish War of 1768 compelled them once again to seek a new home, and at the instance of the Russian General, Semetin, they settled, in 1770, on the estate of Count Romantzov in the Ukraine. Good fortune came to them here and they prospered. They led a communal existence, and every member was compelled to learn a trade.

The settlement soon acquired an enviable reputation for the industry, frugality, and intelligence of its inhabitants. Their customs and mode of life were in striking contrast to those of the Russian peasantry and occasioned much comment among their new neighbors. We are told that "members of the nobility visited the community and expressed their gratification with what they saw * * * and admired the workshops, schools, house of worship, dining-halls, children's halls, apothecary shop," etc. The produce of the Anabaptist Brothers was bought readily and was praised highly. Even Count Romantzov spoke with pride of the success and prosperity of his "Germans." We are told further:

The clothing of the brothers and sisters was very simple. The men wore short, black breeches, the sisters blue dresses, and white kerchiefs on their heads. The gathering of hay in the meadows by the brothers and sisters thus dressed made, therefore, a pretty sight. Every traveler admired the little community. The internal arrangement was as attractive as its external relations. After nursing her child for one year and a half the mother brought it to the children's hall. A number of women were charged here with the care of the children, and especially with the preparation of their food. Two of the women watched over the children at night. When they reached the age of three they were taken to the small school. They were taught here to pray and other things that the infant mind could grasp. At the age of six they were brought to the large school. The members of the community came together every morning for their prayers, and likewise at night for the evening prayers.

It was in 1874 that the Brothers resolved to migrate to America, since the carrying of arms was contrary to their religious tenets. The first of the Huterites to come to the United States were Michael Waldner and Jacob Hofer, who settled with their families in Bonhomme County, on the Missouri River.

The community soon increased so rapidly that a new settlement was established at Miltown. Three years later still another one at Rosedale, and finally in 1900 a fourth was established at Maxwell, all of them on the James River, a tributary of the Missouri. In 1906, provision was made for the establishment of a fifth settlement. Another company of Huterites, under the leadership of Darius, Walter and George Hofer, founded in 1874 a community at Wolf's Creek, also on the James River. New arrivals from Russia necessitated the establishment of additional settlements at Jamesville and in its vicinity. A number of Huterites settled also, in 1899, in Manitoba, Canada, and prospered there. For some reason, however, they left their Canadian home and settled, in 1905, in Spink County, South Dakota. A third Huterite colony was established, in 1877, by Jacob Steiff

and Peter Hofer. Other settlements were founded in the following years until at present there are in South Dakota fourteen Anabaptist settlements, containing each from ten to thirty families.

In point of wealth and numbers the colony at Wolf's Creek is perhaps the most important of the Anabaptist settlements. It has seventy-six claims (each 160 acres), splendid herds of cattle and flocks of sheep, fine buildings for the housing of the animals, and modern agricultural machinery. They have a gasoline engine for the cream-separator and butter-churn, and employ a horse for driving the laundry machinery, where the garments for the entire community are washed. The cooking and baking for the community is performed in one establishment, the butter and milk are kept in a common cellar, while the thousands of pigeons which breed at the settlement are sold at remunerative prices in Chicago.

"The Huterites live here," says the author of the article already quoted from, "apart from the world, yet they are happy. They still regard themselves as Germans, like their fathers, to whose precepts they have remained true."

PUNISHMENT THAT DOES NOT FIT THE CRIME.

THE press teems with reports of flagrant cases of disproportion of sentences to crimes. A first offender is condemned to penal servitude for seven years for stealing goods worth about $15, while a man who has stolen nearly a million receives a sentence of but five years. These conditions bring the administration of the law into discredit.

Before effort can rightly be directed toward a cure, or even a correct treatment, of these conditions, writes Dr. Albert Wilson in the *Westminster Review*, it is essential to have a correct knowledge of the criminal.

Sir Robert Anderson has classified criminals as "those who can't go straight and those who won't go straight." Dr. Wilson would make two rather wider divisions:

(1) Those who are innately and actively wicked, using their intellectual gifts for evil. These are "perverts" ranging from the Whitaker Wright class, who ought to be in prison, to the common pickpocket and skilled burglar. (2) Those who are too lazy to work honestly for their living, and commit crime for necessity's sake. These are mostly unskilled. I term these "inverts," because they resemble green, unripened buds,—buds that will never flower, can never flower. This term covers many who are not styled criminals. . . . for the inverts are well represented in the leisured classes. Whether rich or poor, they are degenerates.

As the result of his examination of a large number of criminals Dr. Wilson finds there are four classes: (A) Those who are insane; (B) those who are on the border line; (C) sports; (D) those caused by environment. Speaking of those in class A, he says:

There is no sharp line between sanity and insanity, so that the term "border line" is not strictly correct. It is rather a very wide and unhappy territory and includes a numerous class who could not be certified as insane. The asylum physician and other experts do not recognize them. They consider them equipped with full voluntary control, and regard punishment as the wholesome treatment. Far different is it when the prison doctor has them under observation. They don't go straight even in prison, and the doctor finds he has to shelter them from punishment. They are called morally insane, which, in other words, means that the moral central authority in the brain is abnormal or deficient.

The term "sports," by which class C is designated, is used in the botanical sense.

Every one knows that plants may throw off a flower or two of quite a different type to the normal. There are human sports. . . . A young burglar aged twenty-eight gave me his history. His father was one of our wealthy city accountants. His mother was insane. He was left an orphan at ten, and became a criminal at thirteen, robbing a safe. He has done several years in prison. His eldest and youngest brothers are normal and in good situations. His sister is insane, and his two other brothers have also constantly been in asylums. He is a sport, neither sane nor insane, but abnormal. Though a degenerate, he has some fine mental qualities and gentlemanlike instincts.

As regards class D, the causes "may be sickness at home, extravagance, or any slight beginning which sends the individual out of his course. . . . Society too often makes criminals. Thus a boy in Manchester stole an egg and got a month's hard labor. This so upset him that he became a criminal, but was rescued when twenty, after spending four or five years in prison. Another boy stole a rabbit. A heavy sentence, instead of curing him, resulted in forty-four years in prison.

Dr. Wilson defines the criminal as "one with the physical strength of a man, the im-

pulse of youth, and the self-control of a child," and he finds a physical basis for this definition in the well-known researches of Dr. Joseph Shaw Bolton. While not insane, the criminal is "far removed from normal. He is somewhere in between. . . . He is not a wreck falling to pieces like the poor insane, but a piece of bad construction, ill-jointed machinery, and rudderless."

How is the deficient criminal to be dealt with? Should he be segregated or should he be punished? Dr. Wilson considers segregation best, if it were not so expensive. Incidentally it should be remarked that it is a mistake to suppose that criminals necessarily breed criminals. "Though the parents may be bad, there are always certain possibilities from grandparents and other ancestors, some of whom may have been very good."

The question of punishment should be met squarely: neither false sentiment nor an excess of sympathy should be allowed to warp the judgment. Penal servitude, Dr. Wilson thinks, never cures. He also holds that the abolition of corporal punishment for brutalities was a great mistake. "There is only one punishment which criminals dread, and that is corporal."

DOES DOMESTICATION MAKE ANIMALS STUPID?

THAT man exerts real influence upon animals may be considered established beyond a doubt. It is highly interesting to note the character of that influence, to observe what changes are wrought by it in the nature of the various animals. An article dealing with this subject by Dr. F. Skowronnek appears in the Berlin *Woche*.

An English writer, he reminds us, recently made assertion that horses are stupefied under man's influence. He pointed out that we value in them not cleverness, but bodily advantages, such as beauty, strength, swiftness, and aim to reproduce the species on those lines. He asserts squarely that the wild horses of Australia and South America far surpass our domestic ones in intelligence.

There is doubtless some truth, Dr. Skowronnek admits, in this contention, for the wild horses of Asia, too, which have never felt man's yoke, are said to manifest an intelligence greatly superior to that of the domestic breed. Brehm, Schlagintweit, and others give enthusiastic descriptions of how the savage horses of the steppes, led by a bold stallion, evade the attacks of beasts of prey by extraordinary precautionary measures, or bravely repel them.

As to domestication, we are reminded that changed conditions,—for example, the absence of danger of life,—exert an important intellectual influence. For it is true beyond a doubt that the struggle for existence sharpens the mental powers. The animal learns to remember where food is found and to differentiate its foe from harmless beings.

There is, to be sure, only a one-sided, not a general, development of intelligence. The hare offers a good example of this. Its sole means of defense is flight.

> Raindrops, snowflakes shaken from the trees, drive it from its abode in the woods into the field; it has not learned to distinguish the significance of sounds, the struggle for existence having trained it not to precaution, but fear.

Some animals, such as the brooding bird of prey, for example, develop much higher capacity on this point.

If we seek for an example among domestic animals in which the mental faculties have been impaired by the cessation of the struggle for existence, we must go to the goose and the duck.

> The goose, in particular, is positively stupid, being deservedly credited with the qualities ascribed to it. In freedom, however, there exists no bird more cautious! Hunters have resorted in vain to all manner of devices to chase the wild geese from the winter crop upon which they descend when wearied, on their flight to the south. Far beyond reach of shot, the outposts already give a loud warning cry and the whole flock disperses at once! And there is about the same difference between the wild and the tame duck.

To what extent the mental capacity of cattle has deteriorated it is hard to determine. The possession of the higher faculties must be absolutely denied them. We can only surmise that the ure-ox and bison developed somewhat greater capacities in the struggle for existence,—not considerable ones, however, since they did not suffice to protect them from extermination by man. But it is certain that they have grown more stupid, for the semi-savage cattle of South America are mentally much superior to our domestic species.

The greatest difference between an animal free and one domesticated is shown by sheep.

Naturalists unanimously ascribe to the wild mountain sheep all the characteristics of a foresighted wild animal. It is watchful, posts sentries, and in flight uses the ground as cover. The sheep as a domestic animal stands on a level with the goose. It is inquisitive and timid, easily losing its senses through fear. At sound of a noise whole flocks take to flight and rush blindly to destruction.

Of man's influence upon goose, duck, cattle, sheep, pig, and goat, little can be said. He does, indeed, nothing to improve their mental faculties!

Except in the case of cattle which are used as draft animals he demands no service of them, shuts them up in stables, excluding impressions of the outer world, and slaughters most of them, after fattening them, when one or two years old. The confinement and brief span of life offer sufficient reasons for the conclusion that these domestic animals cannot develop their inherited faculties, but must in the course of time,—thousands of years are here in question,—lose them. Breeders themselves recognized that in the pig, for example, even the bodily ability to resist disease, the strength of the bones and muscles, decreased through confinement, and it is now kept more in the open.

The importance of living in the open air is most clearly shown in the case of barnyard fowl. The wild species of such fowl are not all, indeed, gifted with very fine perception, but they enable them to recognize and flee from danger, and the domesticated ones have retained these. The hen recognizes the hawk from afar, warns her chicks, and takes them under her wing. Owing to its freedom, the barnyard fowl, instead of being stupefied, has added to its capacity.

The cat, as a domestic animal, occupies a peculiar position. It has retained its independence, and only where it has been made a pet and debarred for generations from exercising its natural faculties, remaining a stranger to the mouse, does it become in a measure tractable. In a village, on a farm, where no attention is given it, it retains completely its predatory nature, with the single exception that it regards the premises as its domicile. It remains even when the occupants depart, showing its detachment from man. This, however, is no fault of its own; properly treated from the start, it can be trained to follow its master on call, upon long tramps.

The most striking example of man's influence over domestic animals is furnished by the dog. No one will deny that it is man that raised the mental faculties of the dog to a point where it is credited with acting with real deliberation.

PATAGONIA RECLAIMED.

THAT the world is constantly being enlarged by improved facility of transportation is a truism, but it is no less true that irrigation is constantly adding vast tracts to the globe's habitable land. The "great American desert" of our father's geography books forms fertile, well-populated States at present; the Sahara desert of our own geography books is yielding in the same way, and now comes news from Argentina that Patagonia, the traditional waste and barren land of our children's geography, is being conquered by the irrigation ditch.

Caras y Caretas (Buenas Aires) publishes an illustrated article on the experimental irrigation station lately established in Patagonia by order of the Argentine Government, and notes with much hope the extremely successful outcome of the venture. The station was established in the valley of the Rio Negro, under the direction of a brilliant engineer from the ministry of public works of the province. Along the banks of the river various sorts of methods have been employed, all supplied with water by a centrifugal machine of sixty horsepower, which sends the water 560 meters high into a reservoir of 300,000 liters capacity. From this the water runs through a canal a kilometer and a half long to the experimental fields. These were cleared by means of automatic scrapers, a somewhat difficult undertaking, for it is to be remembered that this waste land is one mass of dunes and small sandy mounds. The result of watering this desperately unpromising land has been marvelous. Forage stuffs of all kinds and grains have been raised in great abundance and of excellent quality. It is a revelation to the Argentine Government of the immense potential value of this vast desert tract, and great projects for more extensive irrigation installations are now on foot. New canals are being laid out (the present ones measure 11,575 meters in length), and more machines prepared which shall divert the waters of the Rio Negro widely over Patagonian fields. The immense zone of unused land lies in a climate very favorable for

agriculture and the soil, like all virgin land, is extremely fertile. A brilliant future lies before this neglected province, where it seems that wheat, barley and corn can be raised to perfection, their average weight being eighty-five kilos to the hectoliter.

LIFE AND PERIODICITY.

SOME interesting studies of psychological periodicity have been made by Dr. W. Swoboda, of the Vienna University. The theories advanced by him have gained support from supplementary investigations by Christian Claussen, of Christiania, who describes some of the results in the Norwegian periodical *Kringsjaa* (Christiania). According to these two psychologists, our thought-life seems to show a wave-like motion, the crests of the waves forming our conscious existence, while the rest remains hidden in the depths of the subconscious. One of the results of this state of affairs,—and the one that set them searching along these lines,—is the otherwise inexplicable periodical recurrence of certain ideas and impressions. At the end of a period, the approximate length of which has been ascertained by Dr. Swoboda, and verified by Mr. Claussen, these ideas and impressions are cast up by memory, so to speak, and raised out of the subconscious into the realm of conscious existence.

"Dr. Swoboda observed," says his Norwegian colleague, "that for some time after a concert he found it impossible to recall any of the melodies, but these invariably would come into his mind a day or two later."

Thus he noted that the music heard about 1 o'clock one afternoon recurred to his memory about 11 o'clock in the morning two days after, that is, after a period of 46 hours. He observed also that each time such a memory recurred again, it arrived an hour earlier than the previous time, if not more than a day had elapsed in the meantime. This led him to establish a period of 23 hours, or multiplies of 23 hours, for phenomena of this kind. And soon he managed to find corroboration for this hypothetical period from many observations in widely different fields. For instance, a woman was stung by a bee. The pain disappeared after a while, but only to reappear 23 hours later in its original acuteness. By degrees, he found that periods of 18 hours were more common among women, while men mostly showed 23-hour periods.

Another set of periods, much longer in duration, were finally discovered and verified. These showed an average time of twenty-three days in men and twenty-eight days in women. Dr. Swoboda, as well as Mr. Claussen, have come to believe also that these later periods coincide with distinct physiological changes.

The memory was found to bring back not only visual and auditory impressions but also moods and emotions. A state of high mental exhilaration or of depression would recur unexpectedly at the end of the usual twenty-three hours, and in the midst perhaps of a state of mind wholly opposite. Many dreams were found to be caused in this way. Of one of these Mr. Claussen tells:

I was awakened one night by the ticking of my alarm clock, which sound apparently had just caused me to dream that I was attending a concert. At this concert I read the name of a theretofore unknown composer on the program. This name I remembered now having read in the address on a letter the day before, and recalling the exact hour at which I had seen the name, I added 18 hours and came in that way to the conclusion that it must be about 3 o'clock in the morning. Striking a match, I soon made sure that I had figured out the time almost to the minute. That the same dream may recur several nights in succession, or that two persons may have the same dream at the same time, finds its explanation in a similar way. Dr. Swoboda mentions the instance of two sisters who watched together one night at the bedside of their sick father. On the same night, 28 days later, both of them dreamt that their father was dead and that they sat together weeping at his death-bed.

Mr. Claussen believes that this kind of periodicity does not manifest itself to the same extent in all peopde. On the contrary, he divides men into two classes, periodical and aperiodical. In the former class are as a rule found all who live a strong emotional and spiritual life, and first of all poets and artists. Practical, sober-minded people, on the other hand, show little or no periodicity. While these phenomena at times may prove troublesome and annoying, as in the case of a student whose ability to concentrate his attention on his studies was limited by strongly marked periodicity, Mr. Claussen shows also that they may be used to great advantage. In sickness they insure not only certain periods of ebb but also of rising vitality, and the latter may be made use of for the strengthening and encouragement of the patient. The task of memorizing speeches or other matter may be rendered much easier by observation of the proper period.

LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

AMERICAN RAILROADS AND ENGLISH INVESTORS.

A NEW YORKER with $5000 to invest, and a praiseworthy thirst for good advice, chanced upon the "American Railroads Section" which the London *Statist* brings out every year about this time.

He was much impressed by the 100 big, important looking pages, by their long columns of statistics and their clear reasoning.

After a while he consulted the financial editor in whose office he was: "It says here that 'Pennsylvania at 123 is certainly a very strong and attractive investment.' Do you consider that opinion reliable?"

The editor smiled. "It is one of the best," he said. "Those English financial writers are pretty cold-blooded and calculating."

"Well, I could buy about forty shares of Pennsylvania with my $5000."

The editor smiled again. "That's the way the American mind works," he said. "It would never enter the heads of the English people who support that paper to put all their money into the common stock of a single railroad. With a thousand pounds an educated English investor might buy Pennsylvania fast enough on that opinion,—maybe four shares,—but not forty. Why, some of these Englishmen are the greatest 'hedgers' you ever saw. When one of them goes into a proposition he begins to look for something somewhere else to balance it. What he loses on gas he gains on electricity. The depression in his South African mines is made up by the boom in his South American railways. His investment is what you might call *scientific.*"

A few words on English investing may not be out of place here, because it is purposed to give below some quotations from this same "Railroad Section" of the *Statist,* which otherwise might mislead many American readers.

HOW THE ENGLISH INVESTOR LEARNED.

Long ago English people of means had knocked into them the lesson that American investors have begun to study,—the necessity of learning everything learnable about a company before investing in it, and then "hedging" against the inevitable percentage of the unforeseeable.

The United Kingdom is full of people who combine education and leisure with some money. Many of them are in the army, the navy, the clergy, the civil service, or retired therefrom. The investment of their funds is a solemn matter. They have the time and inclination for statistical research. They religiously read their "Company Reports."

Above all, these people have been obliged to invest internationally. On their own tight little island the real estate and enterprises are thoroughly capitalized and mortgaged. Being forced to hunt abroad for suitable interest and dividends, they learned from experience the benefits of distribution. They saw that money balanced among different enterprises, in different places, was less affected by local depressions, and returned a higher income consistent with safety than if it had been put into any single security whatever,—no matter how well recommended.

SOME SAMPLE ASSORTMENTS.

This is why the Englishman with $5000 (£1000) to invest, noticing the *Statist's* confidence in Pennsylvania stock, may possibly write it down for about $500 worth. Just to make sure of sharing in the renewed prosperity for American railways, foreseen by the *Statist,* he may put another £100 into a couple of shares each of Great Northern and Northern Pacific. He will have a couple of hundred pounds in the sacred British "consols," of course. And his remaining £600 may go into things as different as Austrian railways, Egyptian land companies, Siamese sterling loans, and Hong Kong gas works. He will have satisfied himself that he holds only the seasoned securities of promising companies under able management. On such a combination he will sleep without fear of anything,—unless an invasion from Mars.

One instance at hand tells of a retired civil service official with a total capital of £5000, which he had divided among English railway, industrial, and government securities, Indian and American railway bonds, and

Japanese government bonds. The English securities fell in price every year he held them. But meanwhile the American convertibles and Japanese 4s were rising. So he sold the latter two at such a good profit that he is now actually ahead on his investment as a whole.

APPLICATION TO AMERICA.

Now we Americans, fortunately, do not need to look beyond our own big, new country for good chances to "hedge." Between the Atlantic and Pacific are enough different localities, each with its investment opportunities in the way of mortgages, real estate, municipal bonds, railroad and industrial bonds, stocks, and notes, to give even a billionaire's investment plenty of distribution.

The practical lesson of English experience for the American is that no more than 15 per cent. of one's capital should go into a single security (some authorities consider 10 per cent. as much as is safe), and that it is wise to balance money between different enterprises in different parts of the country. If the reader has made up his mind to practice this principle, he should not be harmed, and may profit, by the *Statist's* "opinions."

WELL-FOUNDED BELIEF IN AMERICA AND ITS RAILROADS.

In brief, the *Statist* believes that America will soon recover its prosperity; that railway earnings may be expected to break records again by 1910 at least; and that certain of the great systems offer securities attractive to investors.

A good example of how the careful financial student works is furnished by this "Railroad Section." Its authors thought proper first to bring the whole encyclopedia of trade up to date,—find the exact figures of crops, pig iron production, building trade, imports, exports, government revenues, bank clearings, and so on, compare these figures with similar periods in years past, and look into the matter of politics and new laws; next to get together ponderous statistics of the railroad trade in general, its growth and prospects; and finally to make a detailed, minute and patient analysis of each of the big railway systems in particular, keeping a keen eye for every important factor in every case, from the many-million-dollar bond issue down to the decimals of a cent which show how much it costs the railroad to haul each ton of freight per mile,—and to compare these figures and conditions with similar ones for ten years past.

THE CRISIS,—A TEMPORARY SPASM.

A young country shooting up fast, suffering with growing pains, causing a financial and business spasm, which will cure itself,—such is the *Statist's* diagnosis of America today. A year ago this paper expressed itself to the same effect in prophecy. It believes the cure to lie in a greater agriculture. That we may produce more and spend less, capital must flow into the farm for a while and away from the mine and factory.

Right here the outlook becomes bright, because our country's power of expanding its agriculture is practically unlimited. The *Statist* says:

> It is not within sight of the period in which it will not be able enormously to increase its output of foodstuffs. In the West and in the South there are very large districts still awaiting cultivation, and these districts are supplemented by great tracts of land where irrigation is only in its initial stages. Moreover, after the whole country is brought under cultivation by what is known as extensive farming, the resort to intensive farming may enable it to double the production possible under the present system. The agricultural lands of the United States are among the most fertile in the whole world, and yet wheat is produced at the rate of only 15 bushels to the acre. Last year the yield was only 14.6 bushels. This degree of fruitfulness is only one-half that attained in Great Britain.
>
> In brief, the crisis of last year was simply a sudden and dramatic readjustment of conditions which the economic development of the country rendered essential, and which will have lasting and beneficial results.

HOW LONG?

"American trade rarely declines for more than one year," the *Statist* writes. And just now no signs are found that the present depression will be unusually long. The balance of trade with other countries is very favorable to us. Much of the money taken out of factories and railroads has gone into crops; the acreage this year is much larger than last, and the condition of wheat and the other staples is entirely satisfactory.

The one essential to new and greater prosperity is confidence. The spirit of enterprise cannot return in a week or a month, after such a shock as the country felt last fall.

THE RAILROADS ARE STRONG.

Leaving American industry as a whole and coming down to the railroads, the *Statist* is quite positive that they are good

business propositions. From a long array of facts and figures, the following statements are taken:

If the events of last autumn and the great shrinkage in railway earnings had occurred in the '90's or in the '80's, a large proportion of the railways of the country would have passed into the hands of receivers.

The present trouble has merely caused discomfort to two or three systems which were notoriously over-capitalized, and which have spent capital more freely than they could borrow it in a period of stress.

The financial strength of American railways is one of the factors preventing still greater trade reaction, and which will assist trade to recover in the not distant future. Their strength is so widely recognized that both American and European capital was attracted to their securities even during the crisis.

That the railway industry is in this strong position in a year of acute trade depression testifies to the ability and conservatism with which the railways have been administered in recent years. Indeed, we know of no industry that has been administered more carefully or more wisely.

We look forward to marked recovery in the traffic of American railways in 1909. We anticipate that the greater portion of the shrinkage of the current year will be recovered next year, and that in 1910 railway traffic will probably reach unprecedented proportions.

HOW THE RAILROADS "MADE GOOD."

A great deal is written and repeated nowadays in criticism of railroad finance. It is charged that companies are trying to pay dividends on excessive or "watered" stock; that thereby they must charge rates too high for the service or else disappoint the stockholders. This undoubtedly is the case with some railroads and some rates. But that it is true of the business in general, the *Statist* will not allow. It uses the standard reference work, "Poor's Railroad Manual," to show that the prosperity of 1906-7 was built upon solid foundations.

If one first considers the disastrous period of 1893-6, during which more than one-third of American railroad track was being operated by receivers, and then contrasts the results of the ten years' work ending with 1906, it is plain that the railroads made good in the interval. They increased their traffic by 127 per cent., but increased their capital only 26 per cent. They learned to handle traffic more cheaply, although they paid greatly higher wages for labor and spent nearly twice as much for supplies.

Moreover, more of the new capital was in the form of stock than of bonds, and thus the financial condition of the railroads was tremendously strengthened. In 1895-6 the average American railroad had to give up 70 per cent. of its net earnings for taxes, interest on bonds, and other fixed charges. Ten years later this figure had been reduced to 48 per cent. Thus the average stockholder, who received only 1½ per cent. dividend in 1896, was able to get nearly 3¼ per cent. ten years later.

All this was done in the face of actually lower freight rates. In 1893 American shippers paid an average of 0.893 cents per ton per mile. In 1906 they paid only 0.766.

THE INDIVIDUAL RAILROAD SYSTEMS.

Below an attempt is made to group some of the more important conclusions made by the *Statist* from its minute analyses of the fifty great American railroad systems.

Among the roads which are expected to experience no difficulty in maintaining the present dividend rate on their common stocks are the Chicago & North-Western, 7 per cent.; Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul, 7 per cent.; Delaware, Lackawanna & Western, 20 per cent.; Great Northern, 7 per cent.; New York Central & Hudson River, 5 per cent.; Northern Pacific, 7 per cent.; Pennsylvania, 6 per cent.; Union Pacific, 10 per cent.

A few roads, the *Statist* figures out, are on the way to raise their present dividend rates. We quote from the exact words:

ATCHISON, TOPEKA & SANTA FÉ (5 per cent.). In the course of time the company is likely to pay such dividends upon its common stock as will ensure the maintenance of the price of the stock at over par, and will enable a portion of the additional capital needed for extensions and improvements to be provided by issues of common stock.

CHESAPEAKE & OHIO (1 per cent.). This is a distinctly progressive property, and one which in the course of a few years may greatly increase the dividend upon its capital stock.

READING (4 per cent.). Taking into account the large profits even in the current year of crisis, the ability to pay a higher rate of dividend, and the enormous potential value of its coal properties, the common shares do not appear to be over-valued.

As to bonds and notes, confidence is expressed in the strength and attractiveness to investors of those of all the railroads mentioned above, and in addition those of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy, the Delaware & Hudson, the Illinois Central, the Louisville & Nashville, and the Southern Pacific.

In a few other cases the *Statist's* opinions will be widely interesting:

BALTIMORE & OHIO (6 per cent.). In consid-

ering the affairs of this company we must recollect that the present year is a year of crisis, and is exceptional in every respect, and that the earnings of a railway serving the coal and manufacturing districts, which have most suffered from the crisis in such a year, are no true index of its normal earning power. Under average conditions there should be no difficulty in earning a profit equal to 10 per cent. upon the stock. The bonds are exceedingly well secured.

Norfolk & Western (4 per cent.). In consequence of the decline in earnings and profits, the dividend has been reduced to 4 per cent., and not much difficulty should be experienced in maintaining this rate. The bonds can be bought to give yields of from 4½ per cent. to nearly 4⅞ per cent. The 4 per cent. convertible bonds at the price of 86 look especially attractive.

Rock Island. The States served are those in which population is growing with great rapidity, and where the greatest extension of agriculture is likely to occur in the next few years. With a return of normal conditions to the States, a reasonable rate of expenditure and a steady growth of earnings, the company should experience no difficulty in paying the dividends upon the preferred stock.

AFTER THE PROFIT—WHAT?

THOUSANDS of investors who never trade in the stock and bond market, under ordinary conditions, took advantage of the financial convulsion in 1907 and bought securities low. Many of them have sold out this spring and summer at a profit. Their money is in the bank. It must be reinvested. How?

Some of these fortunate ones are in the habit of studying security movements. So they are purchasing the higher grade of short-term notes and bonds which come due within a year or two. The idea is to have the money where they can get hold of it in case the market sags off again.

The majority, however, are very sensible if they say to themselves, "Once is enough," and make up their minds not to try to "beat the market" again until another real grown-up panic comes along. Their best chance now lies among certain of the less active securities, those which are not bought and sold often, and which are not to be expected to rise in value; because among this kind they can find the highest interest rates consistent with safety.

The financial editor of the *World's Work* describes the opportunities for such prudent investors. They begin with the farm mortgage,—"the very heart and center of this market."

A second opportunity lies in the purchase of real estate. But this takes a great deal of local and technical knowledge. And "the mortgage or bond secured on improved real estate is a third."

In the farm-mortgage and the real-estate bond there is no element of speculation. The bond is practically always quoted at par and interest except when it goes bad altogether. There is no trading backward and forward.

Since a mortgage or real-estate bond is either good or bad, and since only a specialist can be trusted to know, the best way to buy these securities is through the mortgage or real-estate companies which issue them in large quantities and can show a good record of intelligence and honesty for years past.

The investor's opinion of the real estate which is behind the mortgage or bond may not be worth much. But any one of intelligence can examine into the record of an incorporated company, can learn the reputation of its managers and the scope of its business, and talk to people who have dealt with it in a business way.

Another class of securities desirable for the investor who wants to stay away from the market, and get all the income possible, is composed of public utility bonds. They are more suitable than mortgages for those who wish a long time security running twenty-five or fifty years. The same necessity exists for a *personal* investigation. The banking house which is found to have a record of sound judgment, running through many dealings with such securities, is a good house to write to for offerings. Very conservative securities of this sort may be bought to yield from 5 to as much as 6 per cent.

With the circulars offering public-utility bonds at hand, the investor can get some information on his own account. Some of the important points are suggested by the *World's Work:*

Get all the facts about the franchises, the population served, the legal restrictions on rates, the earnings of the company through all the years it has operated. Above all, find out whether or not it piled up a lot of floating debt during the critical period from August, 1907, to April, 1908. This will serve as a fair test of its ability to do business through a crisis. Any well-managed public-utility company should be in a position to live on its own fat through so short a lean period as this.

THE MAKING OF MORTGAGE BONDS.

"I AM familiar with the handling of mortgages, but now I want to put part of my money into an assortment of high-grade bonds, and I would like to know the main points of difference."

Such questions are being asked of bankers all over the United States this year. The mortgage on a farm or other real estate is certainly the most widely held form of investment in this country. Many mortgage-holders, however, are deciding to put part of their money into bonds. Perhaps they want a security more readily convertible into cash, and one whose interest is more easily collected, or else do not want to give the personal supervision which a mortgage entails; or perhaps they realize the advantage of having their money in enterprises representing different parts of the country.

Now any one who has ever handled a real-estate mortgage will instantly understand the principle of the mortgage bond. It is nothing more than a section of a mortgage on some corporation property, and exactly the same precautions must be taken in its purchase. What is the property offered as security worth? What will it probably be worth when the mortgage falls due? Where is the money coming from to pay the interest each quarter or half year, and the principal when due? Who is going to see that taxes and assessments and insurance are paid? Who is responsible for keeping up the physical condition of the property? The same questions must be answered in both cases. Only in the case of the mortgage bond the problems are larger and more complicated and call for expert opinion of a higher order.

However, this feature is really an advantage, because in the case of the mortgage, the buyer has to pay for the opinion of the real-estate appraiser, the lawyer, etc.; whereas the examination of conditions surrounding mortgage bonds is conducted by the banking-house which offers the bond. The great point for the purchaser then is to assure himself that the banking-house is a responsible one and has already made a reputation for success in this sort of business.

The history of a bond properly underwritten and issued is thus sketched by the *Ticker:*

In the first place, the property is appraised by expert engineers and real-estate men who are competent to judge of its present value and to fairly forecast its value at the time the proposed bonded debt will mature.

Then an abstract of title is prepared by the best available firm, one whose reputation has been established by years of faithful service and whose business might be wrecked by one serious error. This abstract is afterward passed upon by a leading law firm.

These lawyers, or possibly another firm, next see that the officers executing the bonds and mortgage were duly elected to their respective offices and have received from the stockholders and board of directors proper authority to sign this particular obligation. All other legal points connected with the issue are investigated with the same critical care.

The officers of the banking-house that is buying the bonds carefully examine the reports of the appraisers and lawyers and make such other investigation as appears necessary. In the light of their wide experience in handling such securities they then decide, in all conservatism, whether or not this issue is safe and desirable. If satisfied with the security and yield, they submit the whole matter to their board of directors or partners,—men peculiarly fitted to take a broad view of financial matters and to judge the value of any security. If they approve, the issue is purchased and the banking-house assumes the risk of collecting the principal sum and interest.

After a banking-house has bought an issue of bonds it recommends them to its circle of clients whom it may have served for many years, and who have confidence in its judgment. These may include banks, insurance companies, hospitals, colleges, guardians, trustees, and individual investors. Each purchaser examines into the bonds on his own account in greater or less detail. But it is the original banking-house which is primarily responsible for the issuing of the bond under proper conditions.

Trustees are required to see that the property is kept up physically, that taxes and assessments are promptly paid, and that the insurance does not lapse.

The philosophy of the mortgage bond, therefore, may be summed up by a comparison with the familiar real estate mortgage. The latter is the fundamental form of American investment and may well form the nucleus of the average man's income-producing capital. The former, however, is usually needed in addition to the latter to make a well-balanced investment. It allows the owner to distribute his risks throughout different parts of the country; it offers greater convenience in the collection of interest; if it is purchased "tax-exempt," its yield may be as high as that of the mortgage; and there is no reason why it should not be just as safe as the latter, provided only that it has benefited by the attention of a banking firm with ability and reputation.

THE NEW BOOKS.

RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

NATURE AND OUT-OF-DOOR BOOKS.

The Book of Fish and Fishing. By Louis Rhead. Scribners. 306 pp., ill. $1.50.

In this compact little volume Mr. Rhead answers the maximum number of questions concerning fishing in the minimum space. Unlike most compilers of fishing manuals, he does not confine his attention to fresh-water fishing but includes full information about the favorite game sought by salt-water anglers and the localities where it may be found. The reader need not expect to find in this book the scientific names and descriptions of fish, but he will find much practical advice as to how and where to pursue the sport of angling in American waters.

American Insects. By Vernon L. Kellogg. Holt. 694 pp., ill. $5.

This second edition of Professor Kellogg's comprehensive work includes an additional chapter on the subject of insect behavior and psychology. Both because of the authority of the text and the accuracy and general excellence of the original illustrations contributed by Miss Mary Wellman this work has made a place of its own in scientific literature. For the American naturalist it is indispensable.

Mosquito Life. By Evelyn G. Mitchell. Putnam. 281 pp., ill.

This is an account of the known mosquitoes of the United States, based on the investigations of the late Dr. James William Dupree, Surgeon-General of Louisiana, and upon original observations by the writer. The illustrations used in the work are chiefly from original drawings by the author made for Dr. Dupree. The work contains a full discussion of the relation of mosquitoes to malaria, giving the results of the observations made by Dr. Dupree during a period of several years. One may learn from this book a great deal about the lives of mosquitoes,—how and where they breed, how they bite, how they transmit disease, how long and on what they live, how they may be identified in their various stages, and finally how they may be locally controlled.

The Book of Garden Pests. By R. Hooper Pearson. John Lane Company. 214 pp., ill. $1.

This book, like its companion volumes in the series of Handbooks of Practical Gardening edited by Harry Roberts, is an English work especially intended for the use of English cultivators. Much of it, of course, does not apply to American conditions. Nevertheless, the American gardener will find its chapters suggestive and in some instances directly useful.

The Vegetable Garden. By Ida D. Bennett. McClure. 260 pp., ill. $1.50.

This volume in the Country Home Library, by the author of "The Flower Garden," contains much fresh and interesting material concerning a subject that certainly deserves an up-to-date treatment. The chapters on "The Sanitation and Economic Value of the Kitchen Garden," "How to Maintain Fertility," "Tools Which Make Gardening Easy," and "The Garden's Enemies" are full of suggestions, many of which will appeal with peculiar force to amateur gardeners everywhere. There are also many practical directions which will be appreciated by the novice, together with rules for cooking and serving vegetables.

The Way of the Woods. By Edward Breck. Putnam. 436 pp., ill. $1.75.

This is a manual for sportsmen and campers in the northeastern United States and Canada. It deals with the practical details of camp life, giving minute directions as to clothing, personal outfit, camp baggage, tents, provisions, cookery, and the various forms of sport indulged in by Americans in the woods. Not only does Dr. Breck tell his readers what they should have on a camping expedition, but he also tells them where to find it and what it costs.

The Sanitation of Recreation Camps and Parks. By Dr. Harvey B. Bashore. New York: John Wiley & Sons. 109 pp., ill. $1.

This little book ought to have a wide circulation during the summer months, and many of its suggestions, if followed, can hardly fail to contribute materially toward a lowering of the summer death-rate. It is a subject that has been too long neglected, but as more and more of our people are resorting to camp life for a longer or shorter portion of their summer, the serious bearings of such problems as water supply and disposal of waste are becoming more and more obvious. Dr. Bashore not only points out the sources of danger but at the same time suggests practicable means by which the danger may be obviated.

Poison Ivy and Swamp Sumach. By Annie Oakes Huntington. Jamaica Plain, Mass.: Published by the author. 58 pp., ill. $0.75.

Miss Huntington has performed a useful service in presenting a series of photographs of poison ivy and swamp sumach which make it possible for even the casual reader to recognize leaves, flowers, fruit, and buds, and thereby to be protected against injury. A study of the accompanying text will enable the man who goes fishing early in the spring to distinguish the poisonous sumach without its leaves. There is also a chapter on the treatment of the poisonous eruption.

"Whose Home Is the Wilderness." By William J. Long. Boston: Ginn & Co. 230 pp., ill. $1.25.



WILLIAM ENGLISH WALLING.
(Author of "Russia's Message.")

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

Russia's Message. By William English Walling. Doubleday, Page & Co. 476 pp., ill. $3.

More than one keen observer possessed of the ability to detach himself from the events he is observing has remarked upon the similarity between the present political upheaval in Russia and the Revolution in France. This comparison, despite the many dissimilarities between the two world movements, is justified. Like the French Revolution, the Russian upheaval has a message for the world. Mr. Walling is the first or among the first foreigners to go beyond a mere description of the disorder and atrocities and point out the true world import of the movement. Mr. Walling, who represented a number of English and American journals in Russia during 1905 and 1906, announces in his preface to this volume that he has not set out to suggest what the world can do for Russia, but rather what Russia has to offer us. The struggle now going on in the Czar's empire has a vital significance for the future of human society, and Mr. Walling's clear-cut style drives home this truth with great force. The story of the persecution of the Jews is the central theme of the book,—not, as he says, because the persecution of the Jews is worse than that of any other people of Russia, nor because the Jews are more important than other oppressed nationalities, but "because they have themselves been selected by the Government as the center of the whole persecution system." Consideration is given also to the persecutions of the other subject races. In fact, the whole "Russian question" is discussed. This volume is illustrated with forty-six pages of photographs, most of them taken by the author himself, and an excellent map.

General History of Western Nations. By Emil Reich. Macmillan. 2 vols., 964 pp. $4.

Foundations of Modern Europe. By Emil Reich. Macmillan. 250 pp. $1.50.

Dr. Reich's general equipment for writing a work on the philosophy of history is too well known to need repetition here. In "The General History of European Nations" he has given the result of twenty-seven years' study of the literary and monumental sources of history and of "close observation and analysis in loco of twenty different types of contemporary civilization." In this work, which covers the period from 5000 B. C. to 1900 A. D., Dr. Reich attempts to do for the history of Western nations what Savigny did for Roman law, treating mainly of the series of "some twenty or thirty general facts which singly, and still more by meeting, blending, or antagonizing one another create a multitude of particular facts," endeavoring also in each case to discover the real cause "that is the human factor, the psychological motive underlying each of the general facts as its prime cause." These two volumes treat of "Antiquity." The third volume in the series will treat of the rise of Christianity, and further volumes will bring the story of the Western nations to the end of the nineteenth century. "The Foundations of Modern Europe" is a second revised edition of the useful work under this title, published four years ago, containing a summary of the twelve lectures delivered by Dr. Reich at the University of London.

John and Sebastian Cabot. By Frederick A. Ober. Harpers. 300 pp., ill. $1.

Juan Ponce de Leon. By Frederick A. Ober. Harpers. 288 pp., ill. $1.

These volumes, in the series of Heroes of American History, retell in modern language the life stories and achievements of those old explorers. The volume on the Cabots is particularly interesting from the illustration point of view.

The Life of Sir Halliday Macartney. By Demetrius C. Boulger. New York: John Lane Company. 515 pp., ill. $6.

Sir Halliday Macartney was for more than twenty years commander of Li Hung Chang's trained forces, particularly during the time of the Taeping rebellion. He was founder of the Chinese arsenal and for thirty years councillor and secretary to the Chinese legation in London. This volume has an introduction by Sir James Crichton-Browne. There are numerous illustrations.

The Roman Empire. By H. Stuart Jones. Putnams. 476 pp., ill. $1.50.

This volume is one of the "Story of the Nation" series. Mr. Jones, who was formerly tutor of Trinity College, Oxford, and director of the British school at Rome, disclaims the intention of telling the story of the Roman Empire in its fulness. He only aims to present in a graphic narrative the picturesque and note-

worthy periods and episodes of Roman history in their philosophical relations to each other as well as to universal history.

Granada, Present and Bygone. By Albert F. Calvert. Dutton. 343 pp., ill. $2.50.

This story of the fascinating old city of Moorish and Christian splendor is one of the "Spanish Series" by the same author. It is illustrated with a number of colored pictures and pen sketches.

The Passing of Morocco. By Frederick Moore. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 189 pp., ill. $1.50.

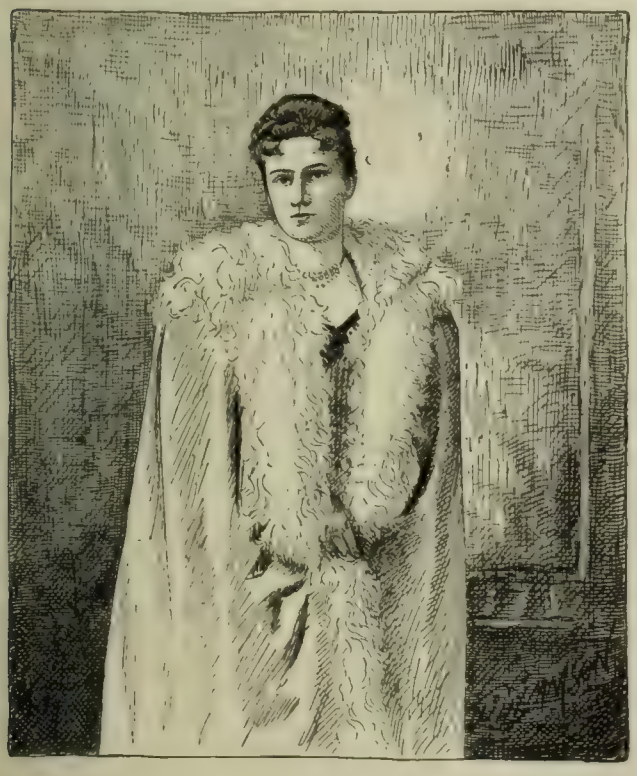
Mr. Moore was for many years special correspondent in Morocco for two English daily newspapers. He spent a year in Tangier and was in Casablanca immediately after the first attack by the French warships. The illustrations in the volume are from photographs by the author.

A Canadian History for Boys and Girls. By Emily P. Weaver. Toronto: William Briggs. 373 pp., ill. $0.50.

This is a revised and enlarged edition, with new illustrations, of the original work issued some years ago, the present edition being intended especially for use during the period of world interest in the tercentenary of Quebec. Miss Weaver's style is suggestive and clear.

Ludwig II., King of Bavaria. By Clara Tschudi. Dutton. 274 pp., por. $2.50.

This volume is translated from the Norwegian by Ethel Harriet Hearn. It is full of interesting personal anecdotes about the reigning monarchs of Europe contemporary with the mad Bavarian King.



QUEEN DRAGA OF SERVIA.
(Illustration from "A Royal Tragedy.")



SIR HALLIDAY MACARTNEY.
(Whose life has been written by Demetrius C. Boulger.)

A Royal Tragedy. By Chedomille Mijatovich. Dodd, Mead & Co. 230 pp., ill. $2.50.

This story of the assassination of King Alexander and Queen Draga of Servia in the summer of 1903 is graphically told, to the accompaniment of some excellent illustrations from photographs by Dr. Mijatovich, who was formerly Servian Minister at the Court of St. James. Dr. Mijatovich was for many years connected with the Obrenovich dynasty. He was private secretary of King Milan, many times cabinet minister, and once a state adviser to King Alexander himself, besides representing Servia at a number of European courts. While not denying the faults of both King Alexander and his unfortunate mistress, the author of this book somehow makes the reader a little more sympathetic with the victims of the terrible tragedy of five years ago in Belgrade. He believes and almost makes the reader believe that the ill-starred marriage and terrible death of the Servian monarchs were both prearranged by Russia.

STUDIES IN CRIMINOLOGY.

On the Witness Stand. By Hugo Münsterberg. McClure. 269 pp. $1.50.

The Young Malefactor. By Thomas Travis. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co. 243 pp. $1.50.

Professor Münsterberg's book consists of a number of essays on psychology and crime, attempting to set forth in popular language the results of the experiments and demonstrations in the fifty psychological laboratories in the United States. Professor Münsterberg endeavors to tell us, as he himself says, a little about the "chronoscopes and kymographs, the tachistoscopes and ergographs,"—to mention

but a few of the new instruments at work endeavoring to determine the physical manifestations of psychological states. The lawyer, the judge, and the jurymen, says Professor Münsterberg, all need the experimental psychologist. There is a good deal of interesting and perhaps profitable information in what the professor tells us in his chapters on "Illusions," "The Memory of the Witness," "The Detection of Crime," "The Traces of Emotions," "Untrue Confessions," "Suggestions in Court," "Hypnotism and Crime," and "The Prevention of Crime." Dr. Travis has studied the juvenile criminal at close range and through many years. His earnest advice set forth in this volume is introduced by a brief statement from the pen of Judge Ben Lindsey, of the Denver Juvenile Court.

NOTEWORTHY BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

The New Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia of Religious Knowledge, Vol. I. Edited by Samuel Macauley Jackson. Funk & Wagnalls. 500 pp. $5.

This work is virtually a reconstruction of the famous encyclopedia originally edited by Professor Herzog and later adapted to the American public by his intimate friend, Prof. Philip Schaff. For a quarter of a century the title of "The Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia of Religious Knowledge" has been familiar to scholars on both sides of the Atlantic. The present revision follows the same general plan as did the old work, while there have been added hundreds of sketches of living persons and a large number of articles upon new topics. More than 600 scholars and specialists have been engaged in the preparation of this new encyclopedia under the supervision of Dr. Samuel Macauley Jackson, who was associated with Dr. Schaff in the editing of the first American edition. So far as we are able to judge from the first volume, the revised encyclopedia will present when completed a remarkably full conspectus of its field. We shall have more to say about this important work as subsequent volumes appear.

Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians, Vol. IV. Edited by J. A. Fuller Maitland. Macmillan. 808 pp., ill. $5.

The preceding three volumes of this notable work have been noticed in these pages as they have appeared. The series will be completed with the fifth volume. This dictionary offers a comprehensive treatment of all important topics related to music, together with biographical sketches of noteworthy musicians of all times. The authoritative character of the work is unquestioned, the articles being signed by contributors of known literary and musical standing.

CONSTITUTIONAL LAW AND GOVERNMENT.

The Law of the Federal and State Constitutions of the United States. By Frederic Jesup Stimson. Boston Book Company. 386 pp. $3.50.

This is a most useful work and one to which appeal will frequently be made during the political debates of the present campaign. It assembles in convenient form all the provisions of the American State and federal constitutions, giving at the same time the history, origin, and present tendency of those constitutions, with a comparative study of their principles. The presentation is brought fully up to date, including the Oklahoma constitution of last year, and discussing with especial pertinency the rapid extension of the principle of direct legislation, especially in the Western States of the Union. As a book of reference it is indispensable to every student of American politics.

Constitutional Government in the United States. By Woodrow Wilson. Macmillan. 236 pp. $1.50.

President Wilson's Columbia University lectures were intended, as he states in a prefatory note, to present the character and operation of the United States Government in some of its more salient features from a fresh point of view in the light of a fresh analysis of the character and operation of constitutional government. No American publicist is better fitted than President Wilson to make such a presentation, since his studies for many years have been directed along these lines. Of special value and interest are his chapters on "The President of the United States," "The House of Representatives," "The Senate," "The Courts," "The States and the Federal Government," and "Party Government in the United States."

ESSAYS AND DISCUSSIONS.

Good Citizenship. By Grover Cleveland. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus & Co. 78 pp. $0.50.

An Open Letter to Cardinal Gibbons. By Paul Sabatier. Boston: Sherman, French & Co. 88 pp. $0.60.

Things Worth While. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. New York: B. W. Huebsch & Co. 73 pp. $0.50.

Where Knowledge Fails. By Earl Barnes. New York: B. W. Huebsch & Co. 60 pp. $0.50.

Optimism. By Horace Fletcher. McClurg. 79 pp. $0.75.

Did Jesus Really Live? Record of a Debate Between Rev. Dr. Algernon S. Crapsey and Mr. M. M. Mangasarian. Chicago: Original Research Society. 63 pp.

A sheaf of noteworthy little volumes on absorbing modern topics of discussion. "Good Citizenship" was an address delivered by the late Grover Cleveland before the Commercial Club of Chicago in October, 1903. M. Sabatier's "Open Letter to Cardinal Gibbons" was apropos of the Catholic prelate's recently published interview on the separation of Church and State in France. The translation is by John Richard Slattery. "Things Worth While" and "Where Knowledge Fails" are included in the Art of Life series which Edward Howard Griggs is editing. "Optimism" is a cheerful essay, "a warning against the disease of pessimism." "Did Jesus Really Live?" as has been already noted, is the record of a debate in which Dr. Crapsey has taken the positive and Mr. Mangasarian the negative.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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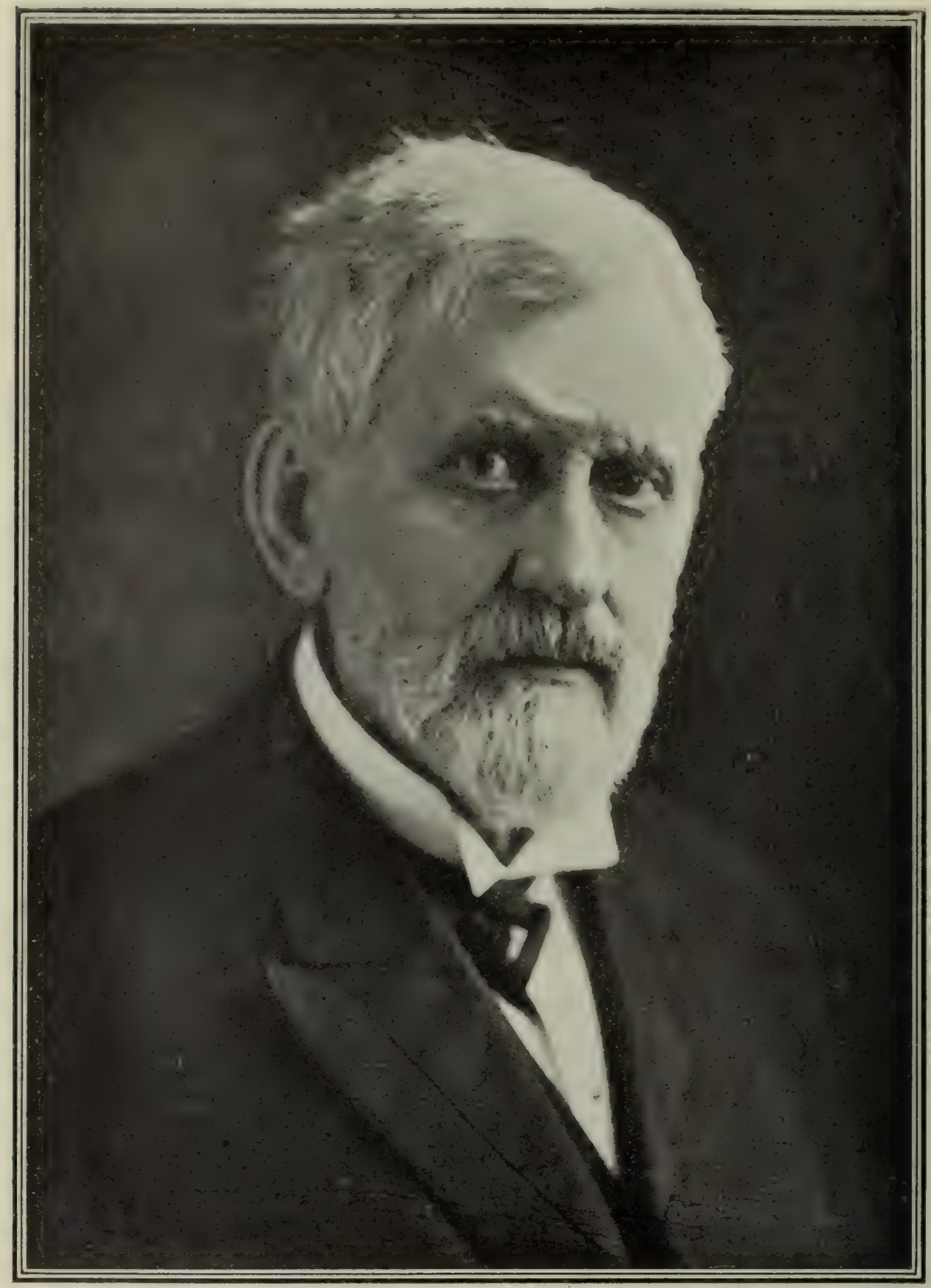
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THE LATE SENATOR WILLIAM B. ALLISON, OF IOWA.

Born March 2, 1829. Died August 4, 1908.

(See Page 274.)

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Mr. Taft Stands on His Record.

The people of the United States, during an unusually hot summer, have been watching hopefully the maturing of a series of fine crops, have been making note of a slow but undoubted return of industrial prosperity, and have been indulging themselves in much less political agitation than is usual in Presidential years. Mr. Taft has very sensibly taken a long vacation at Hot Springs, Va., where he has had ample exercise while giving as much time and thought as was necessary to matters affecting the pending election. For many years Mr. Taft has been heavily occupied with administrative work. His personal character and his qualities as a public man are well known, and there is now little if anything more that he can do to promote the cause of his party in the campaign. His views upon current issues were frankly and fully expressed in his speech of acceptance on July 28. When delegations in September and October pay their respects to him at Cincinnati he will speak to them from his doorstep, and such remarks will have their place as a part of the general debate. He will probably decide to make a few important speeches in critical States. The national campaign opens at Youngstown, Ohio, on September 5, with Governor Hughes and Senator Beveridge as the chief speakers.

Mr. Bryan Also Has Stated His Case.

Something of a like sort might fairly be said about Mr. Bryan. Hardly any other public man has ever been so well known as respects his character, his views, and his way of stating things as the man who heads the Democratic ticket. His speech of acceptance at Lincoln, Neb., on August 12, was in many respects a brilliant and able piece of controversial discussion, and he will supplement it by several set speeches which he is planning to make before the campaign closes. In his former campaigns Mr. Bryan spoke incessantly in all the States where there was supposed to be a fighting chance; but this year it is understood that he will make a series of speeches in important cities,—a few of them in the Mississippi Valley, a few in New York and the East, and possibly a few on the Pacific Coast. But the newspapers will be the chief means of disseminating fact and argument, and the managers of both great parties will rely rather less than in former political seasons upon stump speaking. Mr. Bryan's set speeches began with one at Des Moines, August 21, on the tariff question, while on his way to Indianapolis, where on Mr. Kern's notification day, August 25, he had planned to speak on trusts. He was scheduled to speak at Topeka on the guarantee of bank deposits on August 28 on his return to Lincoln.

Methods of Campaigning.

There will, of course, be plenty of speaking in any case, apart from the arrangements made by the central committees. The best speaking is as a rule that which is stimulated by the necessities of particular situations. Thus, within the past few weeks, in a number of States, there have been sharp contests preliminary to the holding of primary elections, and the candidates and their friends have made notable canvasses, being compelled by the conditions surrounding them to speak with frankness and force and to employ every resource of argument and persuasion of which they were capable. Furthermore, we have now before us, in every Congressional district in the Union, a campaign for the election of members of the Sixty-first Congress, and the candidates of rival parties will see to it that there is no lack of political discussion throughout their districts. In a Presidential year the contests for State and legislative offices, and even for county and local places,

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become involved in the issues of parties and national politics, and thus there is sure to be abundant speech-making by men who feel that they have something at stake. All this is better than the work of the employed "spellbinders," so-called, who are sent out by the national committees. Yet something must be said for these paid orators, whose experience in many cases gives them a peculiar skill in presentation and debate, and who know how to help arouse enthusiasm.

Organizing the New Voters.

There is always a crop of new voters to be considered, and the organizers realize that it is important to get young men under twenty-five years of age committed to party membership through enrollment in clubs and through any other methods that will appeal to youthful instincts for association and for combat. Both great parties are finding new methods of organization and work this year and are going about their business with zeal and determination. This is particularly true of Mr. Hitchcock's methods in organizing the Republican campaign, the Democrats not having proceeded quite so rapidly during August. Next month we shall present extended articles upon the campaign managers and the methods which by that time will be in vigorous operation.

Personnel of the Republican Campaign.

Mr. Hitchcock, having successfully managed a conference among the far Western leaders at Colorado Springs, as noted in our pages for August, has more recently opened the Chicago headquarters and conferred with national committeemen, State chairmen and other leaders, of the central part of the country. A new secretary of the National Committee has been selected from Nebraska and placed in charge of the Chicago headquarters. Mr. William Hayward is youthful but capable, and his familiarity with the great Central West is of especial value. As associate treasurer of the National Committee Mr. Fred W. Upham, of Chicago, has been selected, and this choice has given great satisfaction. Mr. Upham is a prominent business man of Chicago, the president of the Illinois Manufacturers' Association. He was chairman of the Chicago committee which had charge of the recent National Republican Convention. Mr. Elmer Dover, formerly secretary of the National Committee, has been made the secretary and executive officer of a national advisory board which is to be organized, with branches throughout the country, and is to promote the work of raising funds and in other respects to co-operate with the National Committee.



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MR. HITCHCOCK'S CONFERENCE OF REPUBLICAN PARTY LEADERS WEST OF THE MISSOURI RIVER, HELD AT COLORADO SPRINGS.

(Chairman Hitchcock is sixth from left end of bottom row. Mr. Hayward, of Nebraska, the new secretary of the National Committee, is first (seated) in top row. The others are prominent Western men of affairs.)



Henry Watterson, Chairman of the Press Committee. | Norman E. Mack, Manager of the campaign. | Urey Woodson, Secretary of the Campaign Committee.

THE CHAIRMAN OF THE DEMOCRATIC NATIONAL COMMITTEE AND HIS CHIEF ASSOCIATES.

The Democratic Organization.

Late in July Mr. Bryan, Mr. Kern, and the Democratic national leaders held a conference in Chicago, as a result of which it was announced that the chairman of the National Committee and the manager of the campaign would be Mr. Norman E. Mack, of New York. Dr. E. L. Hall, of Nebraska, was made vice-chairman; Mr. Urey Woodson, of Kentucky, secretary; Gov. Charles N. Haskell, of Oklahoma, treasurer, and Mr. Henry Watterson, of Kentucky, chairman of the Press Committee. The central campaign headquarters will be in Chicago. It is expected that the most energetic work will be done in Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio. Norman E. Mack's chairmanship means a serious effort to carry the State of New York. Mr. Mack is an old and consistent friend of Mr. Bryan, and is the proprietor of the Buffalo *Times*. It happens that the New York State chairman, as well as the national chairman, is also a newspaper proprietor, Mr. "Fingy" Conners, owning the *Enquirer* and the *Courier*, both of Buffalo. Mr. Bryan has put his brother in charge of his newspaper, the *Commoner*, during the campaign, and has announced that the entire profits of the paper will be applied to the campaign fund. Mr. Bryan has also announced that the largest single subscription that will be received from any individual is $10,000, and that all contributions exceeding $100 will be made public before the election.

Appealing for Funds.

The campaign plan is that of a great number of small popular contributions, and the prosperous Western farmers are expected to supply a considerable part of the necessary money. It has been a favorite doctrine with Mr. Bryan and also with Chairman Mack that large campaign funds bear no necessary relation to the action of voters at the polls. Mr. Mack has pointed out that the Democrats had all the money they wanted for New York and other States in Judge Parker's campaign four years ago, all to no avail, and that far better results were achieved by the Democrats in 1900 with very little money at their disposal. It must not be supposed for a moment by those who are saying that the Republicans are going to win without a doubt that the Democrats admit anything of the sort, or that they will not carry on a very aggressive and powerful campaign. The New York *World*, in some respects the foremost of American newspapers, although bit-

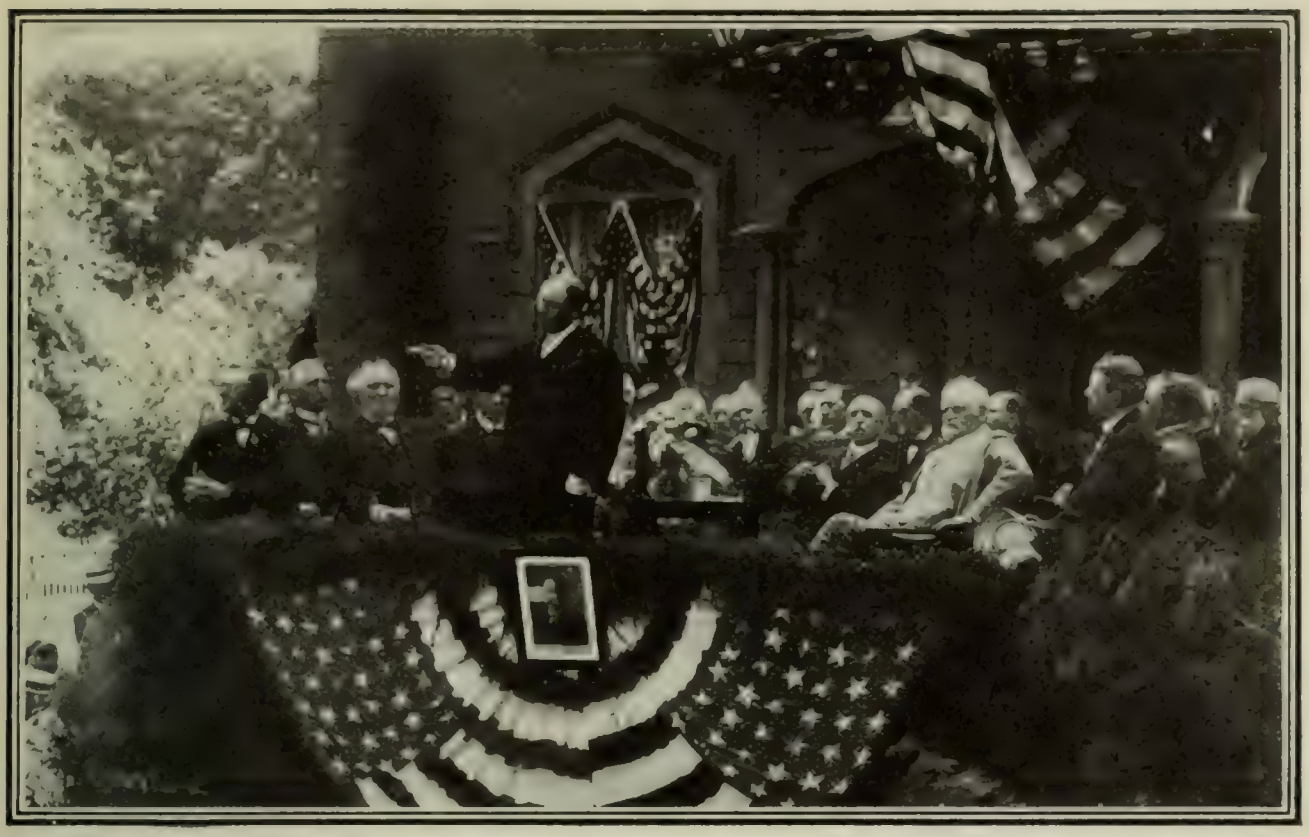
terly opposed to Mr. Bryan before the Denver convention, has concluded to support him. The other New York papers are against him, Mr. Hearst's papers, of course, being for the Hisgen-Graves ticket. To offset the action of the New York *World,* the Baltimore *Sun,* a very influential Democratic newspaper, has decided to support Taft. The Brooklyn *Eagle,* a conservative Democratic paper edited by Mr. St. Clair McKelway, is also supporting Taft.

Notification Affairs.

The formalities of notifying candidates have this year been more elaborate than usual. Mr. Taft's notification at Cincinnati on July 28 was a great local occasion in which everybody took part without regard to politics. Mr. Bryan's notification at Lincoln was made the greatest holiday in the history of the city. It occurred on August 12. In 1896 Mr. Bryan came into what he termed "the enemy's country" and was notified of his nomination in Madison Square Garden, New York City, where he made a great acceptance speech. In 1900 he was notified at Indianapolis. This year, in his own home city, the occasion was celebrated as heartily by his Republican neighbors as by his Democratic supporters. At Utica, N. Y., Mr. Sherman's notification on August 18 was attended by all sorts of local diversions, and the mixed program of politics and general entertainment brought thousands of people to the attractive city that forms the gateway of the great northern highlands of New York. Mr. Kern's notification as Democratic candidate for the Vice-Presidency was set for August 25, and Indianapolis was prepared well in advance to make the occasion a popular one, and to show in every way the good-will in which Mr. Kern is held by the people of Indiana. There is bound to be enough asperity and strain in any Presidential campaign, and it is pleasant therefore to make note of the non-partisan and friendly spirit in which the four cities of Cincinnati, Lincoln, Utica, and Indianapolis have shown their regard for their distinguished fellow-townsmen who happen to be candidates.



MR. BRYAN DELIVERING HIS SPEECH OF ACCEPTANCE IN FRONT OF THE NEBRASKA STATE CAPITOL AT LINCOLN, ON AUGUST 12.



MR. SHERMAN MAKING HIS ACCEPTANCE SPEECH AT UTICA, ON AUGUST 18.

(Senator Burrows, Secretary Root, Chairman Hitchcock, and other prominent Republicans are to be seen in the group on the platform.)

Socialists in This Year's Politics.

There are printed in this number of the REVIEW four interesting articles relating to the smaller parties and their position in the present campaign. Mr. Robert Hunter's article on the Socialist party will be found an unusually straightforward account of what the American Socialists represent and advocate. In his article will be found the platform of the party which has named Mr. Debs for its Presidential candidate. Mr. Hunter himself is a representative of the younger group of educated men who have been led, through their sympathies with the less-favored classes, into the ranks of the Socialist party. He is a graduate of the University of Indiana, was for several years active in various organizations in Chicago for improving the condition of the people, and came to New York as the head of the University Settlement six or seven years ago. Afterward he was connected with the child-labor movement, the small-parks committee, and other kindred projects. He is the author of an important work on "Poverty" and of a new book entitled "Socialists at Work." He is an active worker in the Socialist party, and is at present a candidate for the New York Legislature from an East Side city district. His brother-in-law, Mr. J. G. Phelps Stokes, prominent in philanthropic and social work, is also this year running for the State Legislature on the Socialist ticket from another district. Mr. Stokes married Miss Rose Pastor, who for the past two years has been constantly engaged in the Socialistic propaganda, and Mr. Hunter married Mr. Stokes' sister, who had been active and well known in social and charitable work. We are glad to give space for Mr. Hunter's clear statement of the aims and methods of the Socialist party. Most of our readers will be surprised at the information this article contains respecting the extent and nature of the unceasing propaganda now carried on by the members of this energetic organization.

Their Propaganda and Platform.

The politicians of all parties will be interested in reading what Mr. Hunter says regarding the systematic organization of American Socialism. The movement is in the hands of capable people, and there is reason to believe that the ticket this year will poll at least a million votes. The Socialists themselves expect to secure for Mr. Debs at least 1,500,000. Readers who care to follow the trend of democratic thought and sentiment in this country will find it worth while to study the Socialist platform, which is quoted in full in



Mr. Robert Hunter. Mr. J. G. Phelps Stokes.
TWO ACTIVE WORKERS IN THE SOCIALIST PARTY OF NEW YORK.

Mr. Hunter's article. Many of the things demanded are already popular measures, and can be found in the platforms of other parties. The thoughtful reader may also find it interesting to check off the items in this compact and clearly expressed Socialist platform and compare them topic by topic with planks in several national platforms that William J. Bryan has drafted, or with views that he has expressed in various speeches. There are certain constitutional changes suggested by the Socialists that are, of course, no part of a present reform program; but a surprising number of the practical demands of the Socialist platform have been favored by Mr. Bryan at different times, and not a few of them have had sympathetic support by the more radical members of both great parties.

The Prohibitionists.

The Prohibitionists have an even more compact platform, which will be found printed on page 300, in an article upon the Prohibitionist party by President Samuel Dickie, of Albion College, Michigan. President Dickie is a distinguished member of the Prohibitionist party and speaks with authority. Apart from the plank which demands the prohibition of the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors, the Prohibitionist platform is, like that of the Socialists and the Independence party, a declaration for various steps in the direction of radical democracy. Thus, graduated income and inheritance taxes are advocated, as is the election of United States Senators by the people. All these platforms are strong in their demand for the abolition of child labor, and the Prohibitionists, like the Socialists, are for woman suffrage. All the platforms of the six parties, great and small, are bold and outspoken for the preservation of the public forests and the natural resources of the country, the only difference being that some platforms go farther than others in demanding that Uncle Sam keep permanent control of his lands, forests, water-powers, and mineral deposits.

A Theoretical Party.

Unfortunately, President Dickie does not show the relationship of the third-party Prohibitionists to any phase of that vast practical work all over the country which is actually resulting in the abolition of saloons and the enforcement of prohibition by States, counties, or smaller local divisions. The admirable people who belong to the Prohibitionist party are now relatively a mere handful in numbers, while the real prohibitionists of the country number millions upon millions, and have been voting the saloons out of existence by the hundreds of thousands. If the third-party Prohibitionists have ever yet abolished a single saloon, the record of this event is not at hand. The real prohibition crusade is that which Dr. Iglehart described in his remarkable article published in the April number of this REVIEW. Mr. Chafin, the Prohibitionist candidate for the Presidency, comes from that State which is now the chief fountain-head of political energy and activity,—namely, Wisconsin. He is well known on the lecture platform, and is a man of the highest personal qualities.

Mr. Watson States His Own Case.

Our readers will be interested to find the Populist position stated in an article contributed at our request to these pages by the Hon. Thomas E. Watson, who is the candidate of his party for the Presidency. Mr. Watson, who has a great hold upon the affection and the sympathies of his fellow-citizens of Georgia, is one of the striking personalities of our political life. Since his retirement from Congress he has written valuable historical works, notably one upon France, and another upon Thomas Jefferson. He is the exponent



From *Watson's Jeffersonian Magazine* (Atlanta).

of what he believes to be the real Jeffersonian principles, and he believes that Mr. Bryan in no sense any longer really represents the radical Democracy. Mr. Watson edits a magazine at Atlanta called *Watson's Jeffersonian Magazine*, and also publishes a weekly called *Watson's Weekly Jeffersonian*. His own statement in this number of the REVIEW will explain what his party expects to do this year and why it survives.

The Hearst Party Now Launched.

The party founded by Mr. William Randolph Hearst, which has been active in the State and municipal campaigns of New York, Massachusetts, California, and some other States, has this year entered the field as a national organization. It had been freely predicted that Mr. Hearst and his associates would conclude upon the whole to give their support to Bryan. But in their convention, held at Chicago on July 27, they rejected with fierce indignation the suggestions of one or two unfortunate speakers who advocated fusion with the Democrats, and determined to launch the Independence party on its separate national career. Mr. Hearst was not willing to be considered as a candidate, and the party selected for the first place Hon. Thomas L. Hisgen, of Massachusetts, and for the second place Hon. John Temple Graves, now of New York and formerly of Georgia. Of these candidates we shall have something to say in a further paragraph. Meanwhile let us call attention to the article contributed to this number by Mr. Graves himself, in which he states the principles which to his mind differentiate the new party from its older and larger rivals (see page 307).

The Party and Its Platform.

The things that Mr. Hearst and his newspapers have stood for have been well understood by the public. Mr. Hearst was a candidate for the Presidency four years ago as a Democrat, and he and his friends believed that Mr. Bryan should have helped him win the nomination on the lines of uncompromising radicalism. Since then Mr. Hearst has figured largely in politics. He was defeated for Governor by Hughes, but his efforts pulled the rest of the Democratic State ticket through to victory. For Mayor he ran as an independent candidate supported by the Municipal Ownership League, and would



FALLSTAFF'S ARMY.

"Led by a knight arrayed in a motley of modified professions and compromised principles, of altered opinions and retracted statements."—W. R. Hearst, the regular Democratic candidate for Governor of New York in 1906 and former Tammany Congressman.

From the *Evening World* (New York).

have been elected easily if a number of Republican voters had not abandoned their own candidate and cast their ballots for McClellan, the Democrat, as less of an evil than the election of Hearst. It is not often that one man has ever accomplished as much single-handed in politics as William R. Hearst. He has now launched his national party, and although he is supporting it with his newspapers, it is no longer his personal property. It must make its own way upon its merits. A small party that has no hope of immediate success can always afford to be frank and straightforward in its utterances. The two great parties that have everything to gain or to lose are obliged to be cautious and sometimes ambiguous. Thus the small parties have all of them adopted platforms that are cleaner cut and more impressive in their statements and demands than either the Republican or Democratic platform. They have all the courage that goes with their positions of irresponsibility.

A Summary of Current Issues.

The Independence party's platform was read by Mr. Clarence J. Shearn in the Chicago convention on the evening of July 28. A summary of this platform, prepared at the time by the platform-builders themselves, is well worth printing, because of the way in which it brings forward a number of current issues and topics which seem to belong peculiarly to the present political season. It reads as follows:

WHAT THE INDEPENDENCE PARTY PLATFORM DEMANDS.

Direct nominations, initiative and referendum, and right of recall.

Legislation against corrupt practices and use of money at elections.

Cessation of overcapitalization and other corporation frauds.

No injunction in labor cases before trial, and a jury trial in contempt cases.

Removal of organizations of farmers and workers from operation of Sherman Anti-Trust law.

Eight-hour day for Government employees.

Law to prevent blacklisting of employees.

Better protection for lives and health of workers.

State and federal inspection of railroads for safety.

Employers' liability law.

Prohibition of child labor.

Prohibition of competition of convict labor.

Creation of a Department of Labor, including mines and mining.

All money to be issued by Government through central bank.

Tariff revision by friends of the people.

Better supervision of railroads and physical valuation of their property.

An effective anti-trust law carrying a prison penalty.

Government ownership of railroads as soon as practicable and immediate Government ownership of telegraphs.

Parcels post and postal savings banks.

Good roads.

Statehood for Arizona and New Mexico.

Court review of postal censorship and rulings.

Prohibition of fictitious sales of farm products for future delivery, and suppression of bucket-shops.

A national health bureau.

Exclusion of Asiatic cheap labor.

A greater navy.

Extension of inland waterways and conservation of natural resources.

Protection of American citizens abroad.

Popular election of United States Senators and State and federal judges.

A graduated income tax.

The Harmonious Trend of American Opinion.

Many of these demands are similar to those set forth by the Socialists in their "immediate program." Many of them are almost identical with planks in the Populist platform. Almost every item in the list is in accordance with a position that Mr. William J. Bryan has at some time prominently supported. Many of these planks are in agreement with this year's Democratic platform, a number of them are in harmony with the Republican platform, and even more are in accord with views that have been officially expressed by President Roosevelt. All along the line there is a demand for banking and currency reform of some sort; every one of the six parties favors tariff reform. All parties except the Republican are specifically in favor of income and inheritance taxes, while President Roosevelt's recent utterances on these subjects represent a Republican sentiment even more weighty and important than that expressed in the opposition platforms. Almost everybody in all parties demands the popular election of United States Senators. All parties are for good roads, parcels post, and postal savings banks. Most of the parties want to see a larger use of primary elections, the referendum, and in general of direct appeal to the voters. All parties want a more sweeping and efficient federal control of railroads and great corporations.

Taft or Bryan Must Move with the Tide.

It is not claiming too much for President Roosevelt to say that in the past seven years his utterances and practical leadership have done a great deal to bring the American people to a



HON. THOMAS L. HISGEN AND HIS FAMILY.

point of substantial agreement upon a number of questions, and, unconsciously to themselves, they have managed to indicate this harmonious trend of public opinion by planks in all the party platforms. If their lives and health are spared until the electoral college has assembled, Mr. Taft and Mr. Bryan will probably divide between themselves all of the electoral votes of the country. One or the other of them will be President. Neither of them in that office will be able to secure any radical or violent changes in the political, social, or economic conditions under which the people of the United States are living. But the successful man, whichever one he may be, will find a general trend of opinion and conviction underlying party differences, and will find it possible to make some progress in the direction of that trend. And it can also be said that the minor parties are not to be ignored in a study of the situation as regards the views and feelings of the people.

Hisgen the Candidate.

As a rule the platforms and the general aims and objects of the smaller parties are much more important than their candidates. Nevertheless the Independence party has chosen a picturesque and interesting ticket. Mr. Thomas L. Hisgen, candidate for the Presidency, is the leader of his party in Massachusetts, and last year he ran for the governorship of that State, polling more votes than the regular Democratic candidate and making himself a prominent political figure by virtue of his strong run. Mr. Hisgen

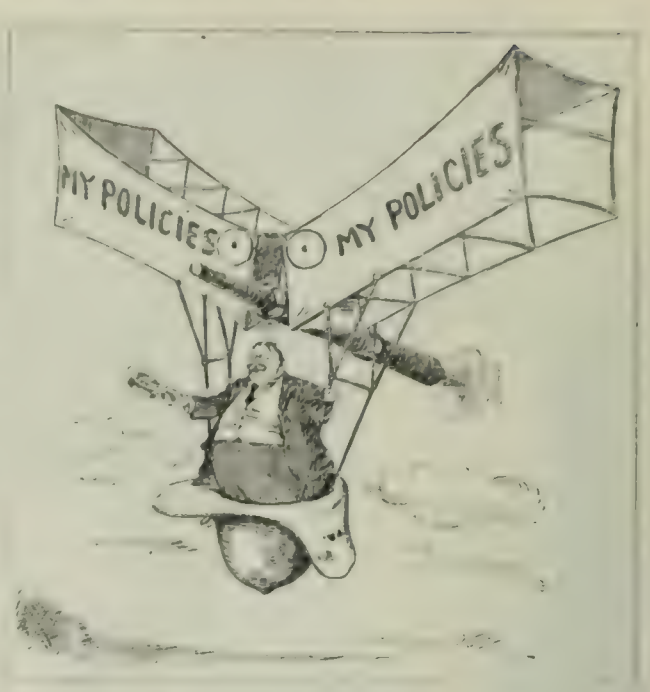
is a native of Indiana, where his father owned a small country store. The father had invented a recipe for making axle grease, and four of the sons, led by Thomas L., became partners later on in the manufacture and sale of this commodity. The Standard Oil Company was also making axle grease and wished to get rid of the business of the Hisgens, who were selling what they called "Four Brothers Axle Grease." They did not wish to sell out, and then, it is alleged, began the Standard's tactics of trying to drive the small competitor to the wall. The Hisgens, who were plucky, at once decided that they would sell not only axle grease, but also kerosene. They started local oil wagons in Albany, in Springfield, Mass., and in some other places. The Standard (so the story goes) cut prices below cost, in order to drive the Hisgens out of the oil business. The public took an interest in the matter, stood by the Four Brothers' Oil Company, and it seems that the Hisgens are now doing a considerable oil business in New England. Thomas L. Hisgen is evidently a firm character and very much of a man. He is a sturdy fighter and knows how to make a strong appeal.

Mr. John Temple Graves.

His associate on the ticket is Mr. John Temple Graves, now the editor of the New York *American,* which is Mr. Hearst's morning newspaper in the metropolis. Before coming to New York last year he was the editor of the Atlanta *Daily Georgian,* and for many years he has been famous throughout the country as a Southern editor and public speaker. There was widespread comment last year upon his proposal that Mr. Bryan should advocate Mr. Roosevelt as the candidate of both parties in recognition of an "era of good feeling" and a general acceptance of the President's leadership and policies. There is no way at present to form a rational estimate of the position that the Independence party will take in the actual polling in November.

Taft's Statement of the Issues.

Mr. Taft's speech of acceptance, delivered at Cincinnati on July 28, is a very carefully prepared document, rather than a speech in the ordinary sense of the word. It is a production of great value and strength, because every word of it has been weighed and comes from the pen of a man trained, as a judge, to qualify his utterances, and accustomed to be held



MR. TAFT IN HIS FLYING MACHINE.
From the *World* (New York).

responsible. Mr. Taft begins by explaining what significance he attaches to the general policies of President Roosevelt, and he declares that the chief hope of Republican success this year "must rest on the confidence which the people of the country have in the sincerity of the party's declaration in its platform that it intends to continue his policies." Mr. Taft has thought clearly about what lies ahead. He states it as follows:

> The chief function of the next Administration, in my judgment, is distinct from and a progressive development of that which has been performed by President Roosevelt. The chief function of the next Administration is to complete and perfect the machinery by which these standards may be maintained, by which the law-breakers may be promptly restrained and punished, but which shall operate with sufficient accuracy and dispatch to interfere with legitimate business as little as possible.

In a later sentence he remarks:

> The practical constructive and difficult work, therefore, of those who follow Mr. Roosevelt, is to devise the ways and means by which the high level of business integrity and obedience to law which he has established may be maintained and departures from it restrained without undue interference with legitimate business.

A Thoughtful Discussion.

Proceeding along the line of these principles, Mr. Taft discusses in a business-like and thoughtful fashion the precise questions that must be considered in the further effort to give proper regulation to railroads and industrial corporations. Mr. Taft attacks Mr.

Bryan and the methods he proposes as tending to destroy rather than to regulate modern business. He discusses the injunction question and various labor issues, and expounds the whole subject with candor and clearness. He speaks as a high authority upon all matters that concern the judiciary and its relation to practical justice among the people. Mr. Taft looks forward to a revision of the currency laws as a result of the work of the Currency Commission, and criticises sharply Mr. Bryan's plan of guaranteeing bank deposits. He is well informed and forcible in his presentation of the Philippine question. He welcomes the change in the Democratic attitude toward the support of an adequate navy. As to campaign contributions, Mr. Taft calls attention to the Republican law which now forbids the old system of levying upon the salaries of Government employees. He calls further attention to the Republican law of 1907 forbidding corporations to contribute to the election of Presidential electors or Members of Congress. He declares that Mr. Sheldon's appointment as treasurer of the National Republican Committee means that this year's receipts and disbursements will be reported under the terms of the New York State law. Mr. Taft expresses his personal advocacy of a federal law requiring a statement of contributions to elections for Congressmen and other positions under the jurisdiction of Congress. He is personally inclined to favor the popular election of United States Senators, but declares that the question is not a party one. He says that an income tax, when needed for purposes of public revenue, can be enacted without amending the Constitution. Upon the whole, Mr. Taft's speech is a frank and straightforward avowal of the opinions and practical programs of one of our greatest living statesmen. It is fair to say that it has made a favorable impression upon the business community and upon American public opinion at large.

Mr. Bryan's Clever Speech.

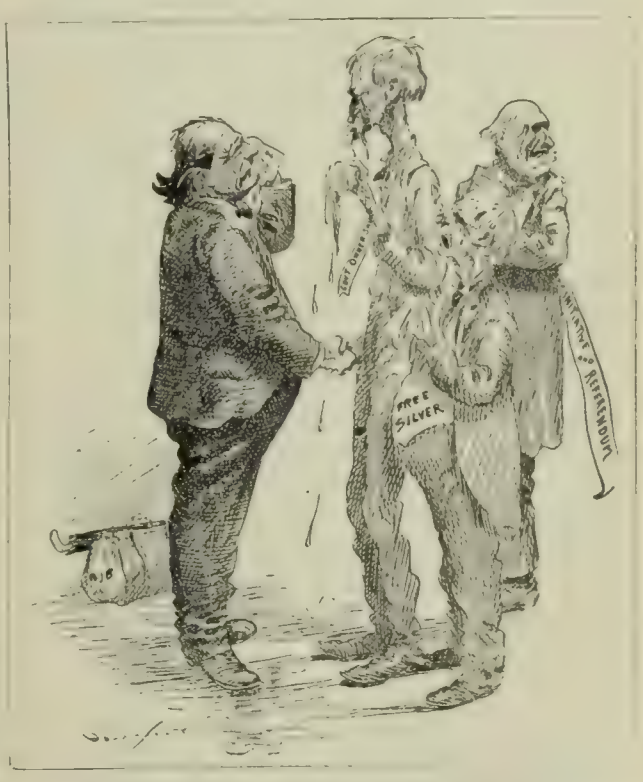
Mr. Bryan's speech of acceptance on August 12 is rather an attack upon the Republican position than an exposition of his own views. He promises to deal with the Democratic platform in a detailed way when he sends out his formal letter of acceptance. He begins by setting forth views upon the binding character of party platforms that can hardly be accepted by thoughtful people. Speaking of the Democratic platform, he says:

> I endorse it in whole and in part, and shall, if elected, regard its declarations as binding upon me. And, I may add, a platform is binding as to what it omits as well as to what it contains. According to the Democratic idea, the people think for themselves and select officials to carry out their wishes. The voters are the sovereigns; the officials are the servants, employed for a fixed time, and at a stated salary, to do what the sovereigns want done, and to do it in the way the sovereigns want it done. Platforms are entirely in harmony with this Democratic idea. A platform announces the party's position on the questions which are at issue, and an official is not at liberty to use the authority vested in him to urge personal views which have not been submitted to the voters for their approval.

Whereupon Mr. Bryan accuses Mr. Taft of expressing some views in his speech of acceptance that are not precisely contained in the Republican platform adopted at Chicago. Mr. Bryan speaks as if the election of a President in the United States were a sort of game between two contending organizations, which must be played according to the rules duly prescribed.

Are Platforms Binding?

As a matter of fact, the platforms of leading parties never actually express the views of the voters, and are always very imperfect and haggling compromises. When it comes to



A SAD FAREWELL TO SOME OLD FRIENDS.

"A platform is binding as to what it omits as well as to what it contains. An official is not at liberty to urge personal views."—Bryan's Speech of Acceptance.

From the *Evening Mail* (New York).

actual opinions upon public affairs there is not in the whole world a more discordant body than the Democratic party of the United States,—not even the Republican party of the United States! The Democratic party consists of three great elements,—namely (1) the solid South, that holds together for sectional reasons, caring not a whit for the sacred platform that Mr. Bryan extols so highly, and furnishing most of the Democratic electoral votes; (2) the Western and Northern radicals and old-line Democrats, who take the party seriously, and have in the main some convictions along the line of the platform, and (3) Tammany Hall and the New York State organization, which are immensely powerful, very essential to Democratic success, and scornfully indifferent to the details of platforms,—which, in fact, they never read and know nothing whatever about. The country does not regard the Presidential candidate as the mere automatic exponent of a party and a platform. Much less does the country regard the elected President, who has taken his oath of office and must carry on the Government for the best interests of the whole people, as one who sits holding the party platform in his hand, carefully measuring all his utterances and actions for four years by a document that is mostly campaign claptrap, though partly expressive of great trends of public opinion. We have never in the history of the country had a President who felt that the party platform was superior to his oath of office. Candidates, of course, are supposed to be men of mature views who will not be tempted to make fantastic flops after election, and their general attitude is usually well known; so that party platforms are of secondary importance. Excepting where the country is divided upon some great and fundamental issue, the views and qualities of the candidate himself are usually regarded as of decidedly more importance than the pretentious claims and extravagant accusations that the makers of party platforms usually feel obliged to indulge in, winking cheerfully at one another as they pass by.

Confuting the Party in Power.

The main attempt of Mr. Bryan's speech is to condemn the Republican party out of the mouths of its own leaders. From the writings and statements of President Roosevelt and Mr. Taft it is easy to select strong statements regarding economic and political evils that ought to be remedied. It is then easy enough to show that the Republican party has for a good while been in full power; and then follows the conclusion that since Roosevelt and Taft both admit that evils exist, and since the Republican party has been in full power, these evils exist not in spite of but by reason of the Republican party's controlling position, with the further conclusion that the easy remedy lies in putting Mr. Bryan and the Democratic party in power. For purposes of controversy, that is an obvious and a suitable method. If one accepts Mr. Bryan's ideas about parties, he may be led to Mr. Bryan's conclusions. The real truth is that parties are not consistent affairs, and that it is just as hard to do business effectively with the Democratic party in power as with the Republican. The moving force is not in the parties, but in that great trend of public opinion that underlies all parties. The Republican party may deserve the criticisms that Mr. Bryan offers; yet it does not follow that the Democratic party is as consistent, or that it would be as effective in power, as the party of Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Taft. Referring to a statement of Mr. Taft's regarding the desirability of regulating issues by railroads of stocks and bonds, Mr. Bryan declares triumphantly: "My honorable opponent has, by his confession, relieved me of the necessity of furnishing proof; he admits the conditions, and he cannot avoid the logical conclusion that must be drawn from the admission." This a fair sample of Mr. Bryan's speech, which instead of being a discussion of issues and conditions in themselves, is a very clever and fairly successful exercise in logic, with a view to confuting his opponents in the great national debating society. But Mr. Bryan's discussion of the issues themselves, apart from his attempts to trip up his opponent, are to be set forth in his letter of acceptance and in a series of speeches. As a great debater his ability cannot easily be overstated.

Western Primary Elections.

Readers who have followed this chronicle of political events for the past four or five months must have been impressed by the growing importance of the primary election in Western and Middle Western State politics. The fact is, of course, that the numerous primary laws enacted by State legislatures during the past two or three years are just now being put to their first severe test. Wisconsin and Oregon led the advance movement for direct nominations, and their experiments were

watched with great interest by primary reformers in other States. In the first trial of the Wisconsin system, two years ago, Senator La Follette, through whose initiative as Governor the law had been placed on the statute book, was unable to secure the nomination of his personal candidate for the governorship, and his failure to carry his point with the voters of his party was hailed even by his followers as a striking demonstration of the merits of the new method of nominating; for under the former caucus and convention régime in Wisconsin the La Follette organization had been effective in securing its ends, and the cry of bossism had more than once been raised. With direct nominations there could be no basis for such a complaint. The voters decided for themselves the fitness of every candidacy. Senator La Follette's leadership in the party councils might be ungrudgingly acknowledged, but his or any other man's right to dictate a nomination to the Republicans of Wisconsin was forever nullified.

Kansas and Missouri.

In the spring and early summer of the current year there were spirited contests for the primaries in Oregon, Iowa, South Dakota, Tennessee, Georgia, and Florida. On July 24 the Texas Democratic primaries renominated Governor Campbell. Last month three great States of the Middle West voted for the first time under the new system of direct nominations, —Kansas and Missouri on August 4, and Illinois on August 8. There had been more or less discussion of an academic sort concerning the various provisions of the new primary laws in these States, but the popular interest was in the practical workings of the new methods and in the results achieved by them, rather than in the more technical aspects of the subject. Although the farmers of Kansas and Missouri were very busy on the day of the polling, they did not neglect the opportunity to register their preferences for party nominations. The Republicans of Kansas gave a substantial majority of their votes to the Hon. W. R. Stubbs as their candidate for the governorship, and as United States Senator they named the Hon. Joseph L. Bristow as their preference to succeed Senator Long. Mr. Bristow made a noteworthy record while Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General in the McKinley and Roosevelt administrations by his prosecution of postal frauds. Both he and Mr. Stubbs represent the "progressive" wing of the Republican party in Kansas. In Missouri, where the two

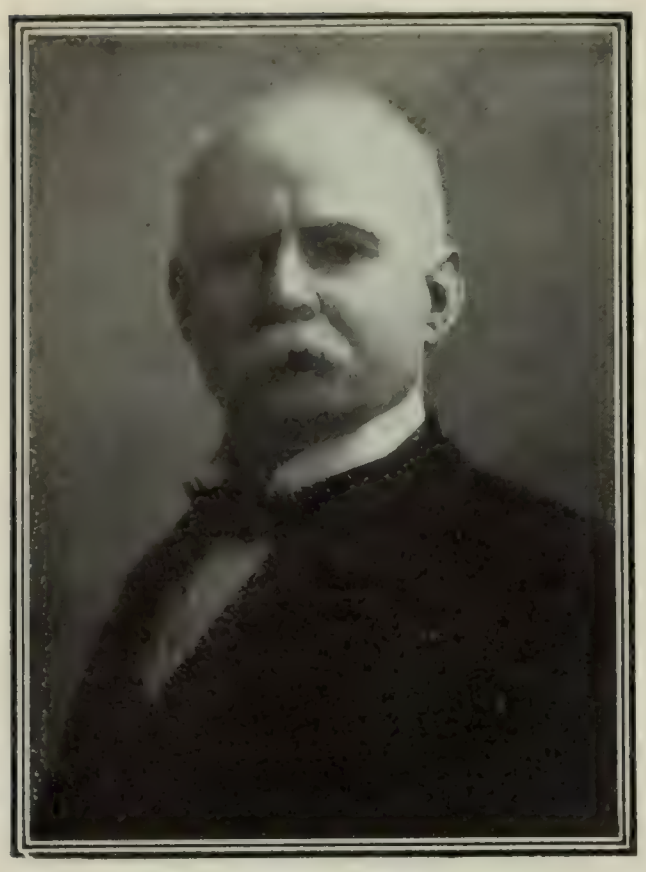


ATTORNEY-GENERAL HERBERT S. HADLEY, OF MISSOURI, REPUBLICAN NOMINEE FOR GOVERNOR.



HON. JOSEPH L. BRISTOW, OF KANSAS.

(Who has carried the primaries in the contest for Senator.)



HON. ADLAI E. STEVENSON.

(Formerly Vice-President, now chosen as Democratic candidate for Governor of Illinois.)

great parties are more nearly equal in strength, both Democrats and Republicans took a lively interest in the balloting. The Republicans named for Governor the present Attorney-General of the State, the Hon. Herbert S. Hadley, whose relentless prosecution of law-defying corporations has given him a national reputation. The Democrats, who were prevented by the State constitution from renominating Governor Folk, chose as their standard-bearer the Hon. William S. Cowherd, of Kansas City, by a decisive plurality.

The Illinois Contest.

One of the most hotly contested electoral fights that Illinois has known in years preceded the primaries for State officers and United States Senator on August 8. Governor Deneen was opposed for renomination by ex-Gov. Richard Yates, on the Republican side, while among the Democrats there were a half-dozen candidates, any one of whom seemed to have about as good prospects as another. Governor Deneen was able to secure a safe plurality of the Republican voters, and the Democrats chose as their nominee for the governorship the Hon. Adlai Stevenson, who was First Assistant Postmaster-General in President Cleveland's first term and Vice-President in his second term. As the Legislature which will choose the next United States Senator from Illinois is practically certain to be overwhelmingly Republican the contest for the Senatorship at the Republican primaries aroused much interest, although the effect of a popular vote on this matter is, of course, merely advisory. Congressman George E. Foss made a vigorous fight, but was defeated by Senator Hopkins, the present incumbent of the seat. Ex-Senator William E. Mason also received strong support in certain districts, so that Senator Hopkins, while having a plurality over Foss, failed to secure a majority of the Republican vote. The question has also been raised whether the Republican members of the Legislature will feel bound to accept the aggregate results of this vote as mandatory in their choice of a Senator.

The People on Top.

In some of the Southern States, for many years, the voters of the Democratic party have taken part in primaries, and in that way many important elections have been determined; for in those States there has been virtually no opposition. But in States like Illinois and Missouri, where both parties are well organized and vigorous, the direct participation of the voter in party nominations is a new thing. It was not to be expected that the initial trial of the system in those States would give universal satisfaction. The new laws were not found to be perfect in their application. In the cities of Chicago and St. Louis complaint was made that members of opposing parties were permitted to vote in primaries. An unscrupulous district leader can bring in hordes of machine henchmen of the opposing party organization and vote them in his own party primaries. There seems to be no effective means of preventing this, and it is alleged that it was done by the Republicans in Chicago and by the Democrats in St. Louis at the primaries last month. Nevertheless, even if it shall be found on investigation that the direct-nomination system in Illinois and Missouri works as badly as its enemies proclaim, it still remains true that its results are infinitely more desirable than those of the system that it displaced,—the caucus-boss system. For the great central fact to be noted is that in the control of the nominating machinery of those great States the people, in the words of Governor Hughes, of New York, are at last "on top." There is no room for the boss.

Why Not in New York?

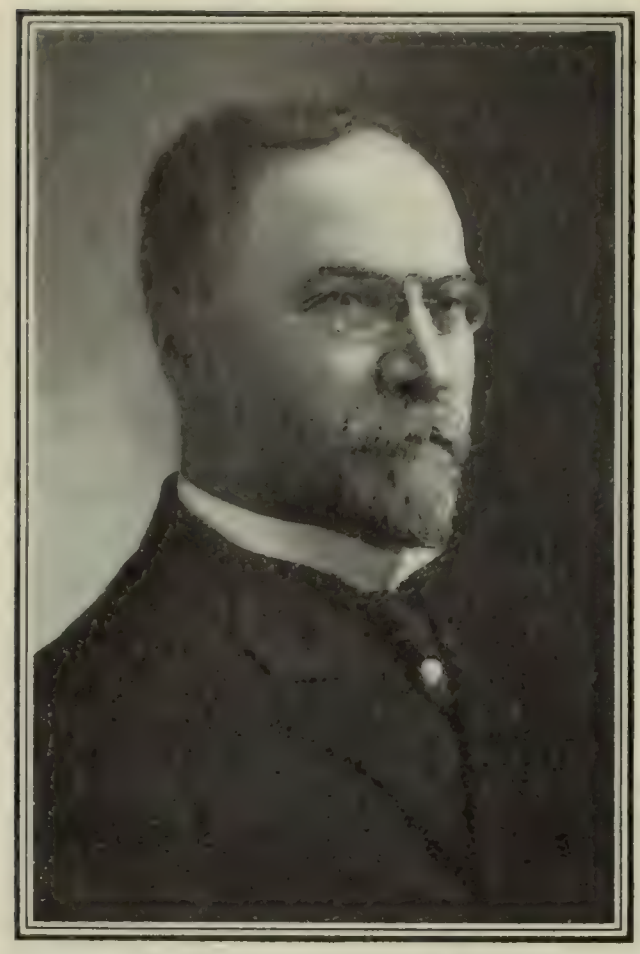
In Wisconsin, Oregon, Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, and Illinois the people are "on top," and for shortcomings in government the people as a whole must answer. Why not in New York? At the very time when the voters of Illinois, Kansas, and Missouri were making their choice of candidates for the coming State election, the men in control of the Republican organization in the Empire State of the Union were considering whether they would permit the State convention of their party to renominate Governor Hughes, who had stated, after urgent requests from many devoted adherents, that if the people desired he would stand for re-election. The Republican and independent press of the State was almost unanimous in demanding his renomination. So far as outward indications went, any unbiased observer would have concluded, we think, that Governor Hughes was the choice of his party for a second term. With such a record as his, it would seem that only the gravest reasons could justify a failure to renominate him. It was known and admitted that his rejection by a Republican convention would alienate thousands of votes that would otherwise be counted for Taft as well as for Hughes; but it was maintained, in spite of this, that a large section of the party was opposed, on various grounds, to the Governor's renomination. His course on the race-track gambling question had made enemies and his loyalty to the party organization had been called in question. Weeks of time were spent in trying to settle the ever-present and vexatious questions, "What is the matter with Hughes?" and "What shall be done with Hughes?" In Illinois or Kansas or Wisconsin the Republican voters, assembling at their various polling places, would have decided those questions in one day, between sunrise and sunset.

Convention versus Primary.

The New York State Republican convention will be held on September 14. It will be neither more nor less representative of the party than such conventions have been in the past, but nobody pretends to believe that the circumscribed procedure by which the delegates are chosen can possibly permit so free and untrammeled an expression of the party's will as is secured by direct nominations. The convention will decide, not who is the candidate of the majority of New York Republican voters, but whether or not it is expedient to "turn down" a candidate who is very generally believed to be the party's real choice, but whose actual strength as a candidate has had no convincing test. If the managers of the convention, most of whom are known in advance to be opposed to Governor Hughes' candidacy, can convince themselves that another candidate is likely to be elected in November, if nominated, that other candidate will be named, without regard to the widespread demand for the renomination of Governor Hughes; for the good party man can always be relied on to "vote the regular ticket." In other words, the mass of New York Republicans will have no say whatever in naming a candidate for Governor this fall. If, however, the demand for Hughes is so strong that it cannot be ignored, the "organization" will gracefully yield and permit the voters to have their way. All of which suggests that the direct-nomination law which Governor Hughes so strongly advocated in his messages to the Legislature is the next great reform to which New York's energies should be directed, and that the very fact that Governor Hughes is the chief exponent of that reform is one of the strongest arguments that can be urged for his renomination and re-election. The voters of both parties in New York State need precisely the kind of education that the voters are now getting in Illinois, Missouri, and Kansas. "The only way to learn to swim," said an election inspector of Kansas City, "is to keep going into the water. Every time you get a man in a booth where he has to spend three or four minutes preparing his ballot you are developing a discriminating voter and consequently a better citizen."

The Iowa Senatorship.

It will be recalled that the Iowa primaries held in June resulted in the choice of United States Senator William B. Allison to succeed himself. Senator Allison's competitor for the honor had been Governor Cummins. The Governor commanded a strong support from that wing of Iowa Republicans known as Progressives, but the loyalty of the party's rank and file to the venerable Senator who had so long and so worthily repesented them at Washington told more decisively than any question of tariff revision or of corporation control. That the Republican leaders were not hopelessly divided by the contest was shown when the Iowa delegation at the Chicago convention united in presenting Governor Cummins' name for the Vice-Presidency, but the suggestion came too late, as the Sherman



HON. JAMES T. M'CLEARY, OF MINNESOTA.

movement had already made decided progress. On the death of Senator Allison, last month, no tribute to his usefulness as a public servant was more cordial or sincere than that of Governor Cummins, who announced that an appointment would soon be made to fill the unexpired term.

Senator Allison's Death.

The death of Senator Allison, on August 4, removes one of the few surviving public men who belonged conspicuously to the generation of Blaine, Garfield, and John Sherman. Mr. Allison was born in Ohio, of parents who had gone from Pennsylvania, and he had such advantages of education as were afforded by pioneer colleges of western Pennsylvania and northern Ohio. He began practicing law in Ohio, was active in support of the Fremont ticket in 1856, and then removed to Dubuque, Iowa, which was his home for the rest of his life. He was a delegate to the National Republican Convention of 1860 and helped to nominate Lincoln. Governor Kirkwood utilized his services in raising Iowa regiments in the opening years of the war, and he was elected to Congress in 1862, serving in the House until 1871. His Congressional service began on the same day with that of Mr. Garfield and Mr. Blaine. In 1872 the Iowa Legislature elected him to the Senate, and he served continuously in that body from March, 1873, until his death. His term would have expired next March, but his re-election was already determined upon, and thus, if he had lived, he would have had a continuous service in the Senate of forty-two years. In his long Senatorial career of thirty-five years he had been a leader from the very beginning. His four terms in the House had made him a Congressional figure of repute, and he had achieved a reputation as an authority in matters relating to public revenues and expenditures and to special problems like the tariff. For the past thirty years he had been a member of the Senate Committee on Finance, and for twenty-five years he had been chairman of the Committee on Appropriations. He was offered leading positions in the cabinets of at least three Presidents, but he preferred his place of influence and power in the Senate. He was without enemies, and enjoyed the confidence and esteem of leading members of both parties. From President Lincoln to President Roosevelt, he possessed the friendship and regard of every Republican chief magistrate. His mind remained fresh and hopeful, and his sympathies progressive to the very last. For some time his health had been seriously impaired, and it was only on the ground that Mr. Allison would never be able again to discharge the duties of his office that the friends of Governor Cummins urged the candidacy of the younger man before the primaries in June.

A Proposed Lincoln Memorial.

As we have just remarked, Mr. Allison was an active and prominent supporter of Mr. Lincoln, although he was twenty years younger. The centenary of Lincoln's birth comes on the 12th of next February. The question of Lincoln memorials is one that has naturally been much discussed. In this issue we publish an article by the Hon. James T. McCleary, of Minnesota, advocating as the most appropriate memorial to Lincoln a magnificent highway from Washington to Gettysburg, to be called the "Lincoln Road." Mr. McCleary's presentation is not only attractive, but at once convincing and inspiring. Mr. McCleary for a number of years held the chairmanship of the House Committee on the Library, which has jurisdiction over the Library of Congress, the Botanical Garden, and all art

matters under Congressional control. Mr. McCleary was sent to Europe in 1905 to secure information and ideas for the Abraham Lincoln Memorial Commission appointed by act of Congress to make report on a suitable national memorial. For the fourteen years from March, 1893, to March, 1907, Mr. McCleary represented the Second Minnesota District in Congress. He was beaten in the last election by his Democratic competitor, but has been renominated and expects to win back his old seat this year. Meanwhile he is serving as Second Assistant Postmaster-General. He argues that his proposed Lincoln memorial would make demands upon the available present talent of our country's engineers, architects, sculptors, and landscape artists, while also affording opportunity for generations yet to come to take part in making ever more worthy this particular kind of a public memorial.

Mob Frenzy at Springfield.

Lincoln's tomb is at his old home in Springfield, Ill., where an impressive monument stands, with a statue of the martyred President. All the newspapers last month were quoting a speech made by Lincoln in Springfield seventy-one years ago on the subject of mob violence and its menace to American institutions. Springfield as the capital of the State of Illinois has developed from a straggling village to a thriving city of perhaps 40,000. One would expect such a city, which has developed under the most favorable opportunities and which is the seat of government of one of our greatest States, to set an example in all the civic virtues, yet there was precipitated on the night of August 13 a riot in Springfield, which, in spite of the efforts of the Governor and the massing of several thousand State troops, was not completely suppressed for about a week. The reports have it that the rioting began with the attempt to punish negroes for an alleged assault by a negro upon a white woman. It was estimated that 30,000 people were at times moving about the streets as if they were members of the lawless and infuriated mob, although it is hard to believe that so many were concerned. The riots resulted in the injury of a great number of people, the death of perhaps half a dozen, and the destruction of a good deal of property. Governor Deneen acted with the utmost energy, calling out more and more State troops, until, according to reports, all the militia in the State was massed at Springfield, excepting only certain colored organizations, the presence of which would have added to the troubles, since white rioters would not have allowed negro troops to subdue them without resistance and counter attack. Even as it was, the white soldiers met with considerable resistance, some of them being killed and many injured. Unoffending negroes by the hundreds were driven from their homes by the mob and treated with the utmost cruelty and wickedness. There is not a large negro population in Springfield, the number being probably in excess of 2000. In Southern cities, where race riots have occurred, the negro population has been very large, in some cases almost equal to the white. So far as it is possible now to judge, this Springfield riot was far more inexcusable than that which caused Atlanta such unfortunate note. It is not well to denounce what one does not understand. The intensity and persistence of this riot at Springfield has not yet been explained to the country, and it is incomprehensible. Civilization is a precious thing, but relapse to savagery is easy, and the maintenance of decency is a thing that has to be struggled for. There are many indications throughout the country of a spirit of lawlessness. Governor Willson in Kentucky is contending against disorders that are very widespread.

The Fleet in Australian Waters.

According to the Auckland correspondent of the London *Times*, the American battleships, "by all report and demonstration, arrived at Auckland with everything in better shape than when they started from San Francisco." The week spent at the New Zealand port by Rear-Admiral Sperry's ships was filled with festivities and evidences of a feeling of the most hearty welcome on the part of the New Zealanders. The American blue-jackets received hearty praise from the citizens and civic authorities for their orderly behavior, and when the ships set sail for their four days' run to Sydney the Auckland correspondent of the London *Telegraph* cabled to his journal: "It is beyond question that the United States is no longer a western but a cosmic power. America is now a force in the world, speaking with authoritative accent and wielding a dominant influence such as ought to belong to her vast wealth, prosperity, and importance." Sydney was reached on August 20, and the ships received an uproarious welcome. On August 27 they left for Melbourne. It is interesting to note the fact that while the American warships were pre-



LORD ROBERTS AT QUEBEC.

(From a snapshot as "Bobs" and his daughter were arriving at the Chateau Frontenac.)

paring to weigh anchor and leave Auckland for Australia, Admiral Robley D. Evans, having reached the navy age limit of sixty-two years, was retired to private life, after forty-eight years of active service.

The Political Campaign in Canada.

Twelve years ago the Canadian Liberal party was borne into victory by a great majority. With no interruption since that time the party has been in power under the leadership of Sir Wilfrid Laurier. Undoubtedly a great deal of solid progress and achievement has marked the ascendancy of the Liberals, but there have been also many charges of extravagance, political corruption, and laxity in governmental methods. Provincial elections since 1896 have generally registered a diminished Liberal strength, if not a decided Conservative victory. In 1900 the general election in Manitoba resulted in a victory of the Roblin Conservative government, which still administers the province. Three years later British Columbia elected a Conservative ministry under Mr. McBride, who was returned with an increased majority in 1905. That same year occurred the election in Ontario, and the Ross Liberal government was overwhelmed by the Whitney administration, which in June last was endorsed at the polls. In New Brunswick in 1907 the Conservative party, under Mr. Hazen, was victorious. The first general election in the new province of Saskatchewan (two years ago) resulted in a victory for the Liberals under the leadership of the present Premier, Walter Scott, which last month was sustained at the polls by a narrow majority. In general, it would seem to an American observer that the chances for a Conservative victory throughout the Dominion at the next election are very good. It is believed that Parliament will be dissolved in the early fall and the general election set for October.

Other Happenings in Canada.

Meanwhile, the entire Dominion has felt the affliction sustained by the sufferers from fire in British Columbia during early August. Six towns, including Fernie, one of the growing cities of the province, have been entirely destroyed by forest fires, which could not be controlled until $20,000,000 worth of property had been destroyed. It is interesting to note, also, the facts that the Quebec bridge over the St. Lawrence, which fell last autumn, carrying with it to death more than eighty workmen, will be rebuilt under government auspices and supervision, and that the American State Department and the British Foreign Office have agreed to a continuation for another year of the present *modus vivendi* governing the Newfoundland fisheries and the rights of American fishermen in those waters. A strike of train hands on the Canadian Pacific Railway during the early days of August assumed serious proportions, and by the middle of the month had not been completely settled.

The Spirit of the Quebec Celebration

Canada is probably the only country in the world in which two such strong, virile races as the English and French could celebrate historic events which included the transfer of sovereignty from one to the other in such excellent spirit and with such unanimity of loyalty to the new nation which has grown up from the efforts of both. The tercentenary celebrations in Quebec during July and August, however, did not commemorate the English victory over the French in 1759; they did glorify the century and a half of French accomplishment in the New World. For a fortnight the old city was filled with

soldiery and banners, with illumination and pageantry, celebrating the century and a half of French history from Champlain to Montcalm. The pageants revived the principal dramatic moments of the national history and recalled the great deeds of Cartier, Champlain, Laval, Frontenac, Montcalm, and Levis. The Canadian youth and their elders who witnessed the pageants could not fail to be impressed and stimulated and to have their patriotism quickened as the great events of their country's life-story were re-enacted before their eyes, on the very spots where they actually occurred. Vice-President Fairbanks, who represented the United States, declared it the most interesting event of the kind that has ever taken place on this continent. The good taste and tact of the British authorities, from his Excellency the Governor-General down to the red-coated, white-helmeted soldier who patiently represented British law and order throughout the fête days, were universally commended. The climax to the fêtes was a dramatic one. At the close of the pageant given especially for the Prince of Wales the armies of Wolfe and Montcalm marched across the Plains of Abraham, and the living descendant of the British general deposited a wreath inscribed to the memory of Montcalm. Then the living descendant of the French general deposited another wreath inscribed to the honor of Wolfe. This, in the presence of the heir to the British crown and of the loyal Canadian, French-speaking and English-speaking, spectators, acknowledging British sovereignty, but at the same time paying tribute to the historic glories of the French name, exemplified the spirit of the occasion.

The Elections in Cuba.

The results of the provincial and municipal elections in Cuba on August 1 have been a surprise not only to the outside world but to the Cubans themselves. The returns show that out of some 420,000 registered electors about 260,000 cast votes, the Conservative candidates receiving 104,000, the Miguelistas 93,000, and the Zayistas 61,000. The provinces of Santa Clara, Matanzas, and Pinar del Rio elected Conservative governors and provincial councils, which will give the Conservatives, it is now believed, the preponderance of power in the presidential elections of December over both Liberal factions. The Conservative program as now outlined calls for the nomination of Gen. Mario Menocal for the Presidency, with ex-Senator Alfredo Zayas for the Vice-Presidency. The latter, who led the Zayista faction of the Liberal party in the recent elections, has withdrawn from the race for the presidential nomination, but the Conservatives believe that by nominating him for Vice-President they will win over many Liberal votes. The victorious Conservative party of 1908 is very little different from the old Moderate party, which, headed by President Palma, was overthrown by the Liberals in 1906, bringing on the American intervention. The old leaders and the old spirit of this party, however, have disappeared. It is not believed that the Conservative triumph will delay or render difficult the execution of the promise by the United States Government to withdraw in February next all United States forces from Cuba. That the elections putting into office several thousand men and ostensibly registering the will of 3,000,000 people passed off with such tranquillity as no other election in Cuban history has known is due in large measure to Col. Enoch Crowder, who understands election difficulties and methods in Cuba better perhaps than the Cubans themselves. In the provisional government he is the supervisor of the departments of State and Justice, chairman of the Advisory Commission, and head of the election board.

Porto Rico, Colombia, and Brazil.

Cuba's island neighbor, Porto Rico, has been celebrating its four-hundredth birthday. On August 12, four centuries ago, the island was discovered by Ponce de Leon. The remains of the old explorer, which have up to the present reposed in the church of San José at San Juan, were transferred on the anniversary day to the cathedral, accompanied by an impressive procession of civic and military bodies. Governor Post, who has returned to the United States for a brief vacation, announces that on August 12 also the church-property question, which has occupied the government and the church authorities for a considerable time, has finally been adjusted in a manner satisfactory to both. Two other important pieces of news came from Latin-American countries on the same day. The National Assembly of Colombia, sitting at Bogotá, passed the law redistricting the country, dividing it for administration purposes into thirty-two departments. The second item of interest comes from Rio Janeiro. It is the summary of the report made by the Brazilian Government of the first year of coffee valorization. It will

be remembered that just a year ago the government of Brazil put into execution a plan for the establishment of a minimum price for raw coffee by buying up and storing the surplus production. The net result of the figures and data published last month is that the measure has achieved an actual, though small, financial success.

Castro's Dispute with Holland.

To his long and acrimonious disputes with the United States, England, France, and Italy President Castro has added an even more bitter one with Holland. The quarrel with the Dutch really began some months ago, when the bubonic plague broke out in La Guayra, the port of the Venezuelan capital. President Castro obstinately refused to admit the existence of the disease, although the report was signed by his own physician. When Mr. J. H. de Reus, the Dutch Minister at Caracas, reported the existence of the plague to his government, Curaçao, the Dutch colony in the West Indies, immediately established a quarantine against Venezuelan ports. This angered Señor Castro, and in reprisal he put an embargo on all commerce with Curaçao, also lodging charges of smuggling and filibustering against the Dutch in a letter to Mr. Reus, which was overbearing and insulting in tone. The embargo on Venezuelan-Curaçao commerce was a severe blow to the Dutch colony, because a great deal of business is carried on on the island necessitating transshipment of goods to Venezuela. After a great deal of correspondence between the Dutch and Venezuelan foreign offices President Castro made his most radical move of arbitrarily ordering the Minister of the Netherlands to leave the country. Thereupon the Venezuelan Consul was driven from Willemstad, the capital of Curaçao, after a demonstration by an angry mob, and the merchants of the island refused to buy any Venezuelan goods. The withdrawal of the exequaturs of all Dutch consuls in Venezuela, which is equivalent to expulsion, and the dispatch of several Dutch warships to the Caribbean, had brought the dispute to an acute stage by the middle of last month.

Will the Dutch Act Radically?

Meanwhile, for several months no steamers have been permitted to enter Venezuelan ports if they have cleared from Curaçao, a condition of affairs which virtually means the ruin of the island. The authorities at The Hague regard the trouble with Venezuela as one that cannot be submitted to arbitration, since it "involves a question of sovereignty and national honor." Holland is the fourth power which during the past few years has severed all friendly relations with Venezuela, our own legation and consulate having been closed on June 23. President Castro has refused to permit the remaining diplomats to take charge of the affairs of those countries not represented, and those who remain are at a great disadvantage themselves, owing to the fact that the as yet unsettled dispute with the French Cable Company and the isolation of the island of Curaçao have destroyed the chance of even "getting cablegrams out by mail" from Venezuela. A conference between the Foreign Minister of the Netherlands, Mr. J. R. D. M. van Swinderen, and the American Minister at the Dutch capital, Mr. Arthur M. Beaupré, as to the attitude of the United States Government in the event of radical action on the part of Holland, was the significant feature of the Dutch-Venezuelan dispute last month.

Politics in Great Britain.

When the British Parliament "rose" for the summer vacation (on August 1) it was generally considered that its record of accomplishment registered a triumph for Mr. Asquith, who has come to be known in England as "the man who makes good." The passage of the Old-Age Pension bill (the terms of which are set forth in detail on another page of this REVIEW this month) was a real triumph for the Commons against the Lords. To have rejected the measure, which was immensely popular throughout the country, would have placed the upper house in the attitude of opposing deliberately and radically the will of the people. It would, moreover, have been an interference with the prerogatives of the Commons to originate and carry through measures of finance. Therefore, when (on July 31), after having rejected the amendments of the Lords, the Commons returned the pension bill to the upper house, the latter protested against the attitude of the Commons and refused to accept the rejection as a precedent, but did not insist upon the amendments, thereby averting what might have been a crisis. The Irish Universities bill, a useful piece of constructive legislation fathered by Secretary Birrell, was passed in the Commons by a large majority during the last hours of the session. The Commons will reassemble again on October 12 and, according to the program, at once enter upon a con-

sideration of the Premier's licensing bill. A number of by-elections during the summer, notably the one in the Shoreditch division of London, held to fill the vacancy caused by the death last month of Sir William Randal Cremer, the founder of the Interparliamentary Union, showed Unionist victories or reduced Liberal majorities. These by-elections have already encouraged the Lords to renew their battle against the Commons upon the reassembling of Parliament. The meeting of the Pan-Anglican and Lambeth conferences in London, and the visits of King Edward to Marienbad and Ischl, where he met the Emperors of Germany and Austria, were other events of interest and significance.

Lord Cromer Predicts War.

Two unusually significant utterances on world politics by eminent Englishmen marked the closing days of the session of the British Parliament. Commenting on the passage in the House of Lords of the Old-Age Pension bill, — which Lord Rosebery characterized as "dealing a blow to the empire and encumbering its finances to a degree of which no living man can see the limit,"—Lord Cromer, the eminent ex-British Consul-General in Egypt, predicted a general European war in the near future. The entire world was startled by his speech, which called upon the government to make provision "betimes for a European conflict which may not improbably be forced on us before many years have elapsed." Conceding that in order to justify his opinion "it is quite unnecessary to impugn the good faith of those high authorities abroad who constantly reiterate their peaceful intentions," he nevertheless contended:

> We are living in times when the influence of individuals, however highly placed, is limited. When national interests are involved and race passion is excited there is always a risk, and more than a risk, that a collision between rival nations will take place, however pacific the intentions of their rulers. Let me add that if, as I believe will be the case, the enactment of this law [the Old Age Pension law] imperils the cause of free trade, the chances of a collision will be materially increased.

Sir Edward Grey on Germany's "Isolation."

Lord Cromer's words are taken to refer to alleged war preparations by Germany in connection with revolutionary developments in Turkey. His speech produced a profound effect throughout the continent and undoubtedly was the cause of a careful official declaration made a few days later by Sir Edward Grey,



GERMANY RISES IN THE ESTIMATION OF EUROPE.

ENGLAND, RUSSIA, AND FRANCE (in chorus): "Slippery fellows, these Germans. No sooner do you think you have put them down than they rise up above you again."

From *Jugend* (Munich).

Foreign Secretary. In the course of this address the Minister deplored the tendency of a certain section of opinion in Great Britain and Germany to represent that "the former's policy is directed toward the isolation of the latter." The conclusion of the agreements between Great Britain and Russia had simply removed long-standing causes of friction between these nations, but, asked Sir Edward, "surely Germany's policy cannot depend upon provoking or maintaining enmity between other powers." "It is not our object to isolate any power whatsoever."

> After all, when the isolation of Germany is spoken of it is only fair to bear in mind that Germany has two allies. We have never begrudged that alliance, never considered that it was directed against us, and if we have made agreements with France and Russia, which agreements, by the way, are public to the world, while those of the Triple Alliance are not, there is as little reason to suppose that the object or motive of these agreements was isolation or unfriendly action toward any other power as that such was the motive of Germany's alliance with Austria and Italy.

The "Revolutionary Strike" in Paris.

Whatever merit or cause there may have been in the original strike of compositors in Paris during the last days of July, which was afterward augmented, on command of the French General Federation of Labor, by a strike of the

bakers and cab-drivers of the French capital, it is evident that the labor leaders made a tactical mistake in the rioting at Vigneux and in the attempts (first) to identify the movement with the propaganda of the Socialists and Anarchists, and (second) to "organize" all the government employees, both civil and military, with the ultimate object of a "universal strike which should paralyze all the functions and powers of government." Only 25,000 men out of the expected 150,000 went out in the capital, and the provinces were generally quiet. Premier Clémenceau, who has had this problem to face before, proceeded with patience and firmness, publicly contending that such proceedings are not "industrial or social movements for the relief of grievances, but simply political treason against the state." He vigorously applied the military and police powers of the government to restore order. One of the first movements in this direction was the arrest of a number of the leaders of the disturbance, including "Citizen" Griffuelhes, general secretary of the Confederation of Labor. The French Republic is already such a highly organized, highly socialized state that a general movement of this sort would seem to lack the reason and plausibility that might be alleged in other countries. Moreover, popular opinion is undoubtedly with the ministry.



WHAT PUZZLES EDWARD, NICHOLAS, AND FALLIERES.

THE TRIPLE ENTENTE: "Shall we bring William into the *entente*, after all? If we do, we shall be obliged to have an army."

From *Lustige Blätter* (Berlin).

Happenings in the Russian Empire.

Russian statesmen and journals are commenting upon the recent visit of President Fallieres of France to the Czar at Reval as a peculiarly gratifying occurrence to the empire at this



"CITIZEN" GRIFFUELHES, SECRETARY OF THE FRENCH GENERAL FEDERATION OF LABOR.

(Who has been arrested for inciting anti-governmental riots at Vigneux.)

time. They point to it as an evidence that the republic, and particularly the French bankers, have not been influenced by the persistent reports that the Russian state is reactionary and insolvent. President Fallières left Reval on July 28, after a hearty, cordial reception by the imperial family, for a long-projected visit to the Norwegian, Swedish, and Danish royal families. Two significant but not much discussed evidences of the usefulness of the third Duma inconspicuously reported in the journals of the world last month were the establishment of land banks in every province throughout the empire, by means of which the peasant and small farmer are enabled to buy the inherited lands of the nobles at a low rate of interest and on easy terms, and the retirement, by order of the Czar, of the Grand Duke Nicholas Nicholaievich, brother of the monarch, from the presidency of the Council for National Defense. In its petition for his removal the Duma declared that the nation demanded the retirement of all grand ducal officials, since by the circumstance of their birth they are not amenable to ordinary discipline. The Finnish Diet was opened at Helsingfors on

August 1, and Judge Svinhufvud, leader of the Young Finn party, was re-elected president. In its reply to the speech from the throne the Diet insisted on "the separate administration of Finland, together with independent supervision and direct report upon matters of finance to the monarch," this constituting "the cornerstone of the legal order."

Is it Revolution in Turkey?

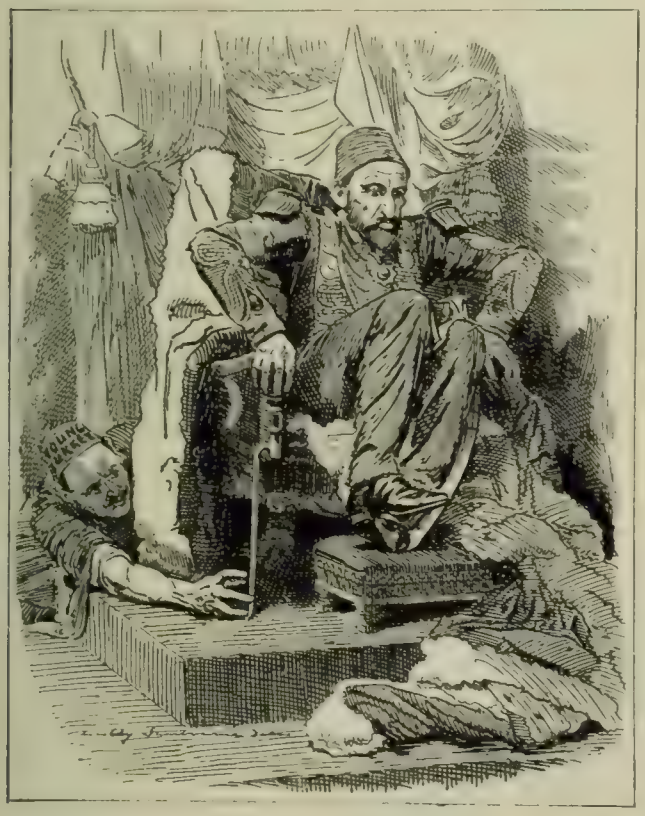
Whether or not Sultan Abdul Hamid II. has revived the "suspended" Turkish constitution of 1876 or has promulgated an entirely new one, the momentous fact, destined to have the most far-reaching consequences in eastern Europe, is that the Turkish monarch has professedly relinquished some of those despotic privileges which have been the prerogatives of Turkish Sultans from time immemorial. It had been well known in political circles in Europe for several years that the radical subjects of the Sultan, who form the closely organized political party known as the Young Turks, had been conducting a propaganda in the army and throughout the chronically disaffected portions of the empire. The news, however, that on July 24 the Sultan had published in Constantinople an iradé ordering the assembly of a chamber of deputies, "in accordance with the constitution suspended in 1878," came as a great surprise to the civilized world. The dramatic rapidity with which Abdul Hamid renounced his autocratic privileges and granted a constitution is proof first of all of the peril in which he found himself. The immediately impelling force was the disaffection of the army, the prop of all despotic thrones. Always underpaid and neglected, the Turkish army is particularly destitute at the present moment. Early in July the garrison at Monastir, a small city in Macedonia, mutinied, and after looting the town fled to the mountains. The regular Turkish troops at Salonika and Smyrna refused to crush the rebellion and shot several palace officials sent to investigate. These events evidently forced the hands of the Young Turks and precipitated the crisis. The leader of the revolutionary party, who has been acting under various aliases, but most frequently known as Major Niazier, telegraphed direct to the Sultan: "Proclaim a constitution at once or I march on Constantinople with 300,000 men."



ABDUL HAMID II., SULTAN OF TURKEY.

(In the drawing of this, the only portrait made of the Sultan of Turkey since he was a beardless youth, Mr. Homer Davenport risked his own personal liberty and that of his companions. Although watched by spies who repeatedly searched his baggage for the precious sketch, he finally succeeded in smuggling it out of the country in a bale of hay.)

From the *Woman's Home Companion.*



THE PERIL TO THE TURKISH THRONE.

What are the Young Turks really plotting?

From *Punch* (London).

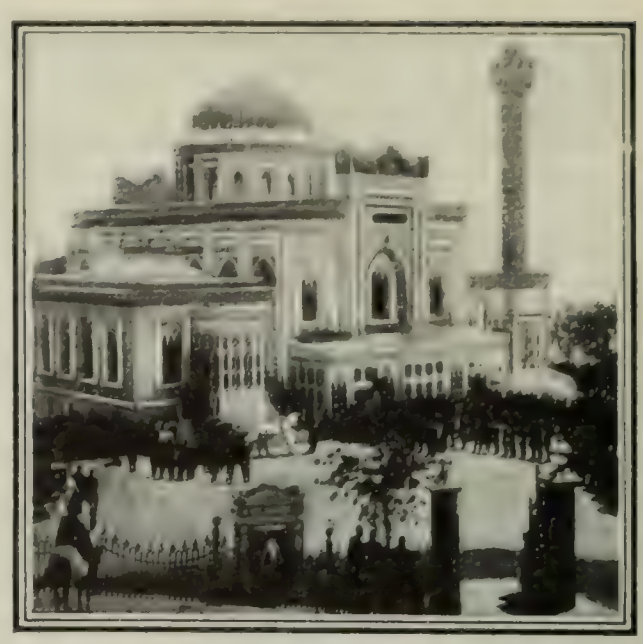
A Turkish Constitution.

This was the first intimation that the Sultan had of the truth. He hesitated, and consulted with his viziers, but when a second telegraphic dispatch announced to him that the garrison of Salonika had proclaimed a constitution, omitting even the mention of his name, the Sultan yielded. To the ministers who wished to temporize further he is reported to have declared: "No! I gave this constitution originally and I have published it each year in the official almanac. I will order the elections at once on the constitution as it stands." This document of thirty years ago, which was never abolished, but only "suspended" after the war with Russia, vested the power of government in the Sultan and a Parliament of two chambers, with a ministry responsible to the lower (elected) house. The provisions of this constitution have been summarized as follows:

(1) The Ottoman Empire indivisible; (2) the Sultan Caliph of all Ottomans; (3) his prerogatives those of the sovereigns of the West; (4) liberty of the subject inviolable; (5) Islam the religion of the state, but with no other distinction or theocratic character; (6) free exercise of public worship for all creeds; (7) liberty of the press and education; (8) primary education compulsory; (9) no religious tests for offices; (10) no government interference with the judges; (11) a Chamber of Deputies, with one member for every 200,000 of the population; elections every four years; (12) a Senate, with members nominated for life by the Sultan.

Does the Sultan Mean It?

Much doubt has been expressed of Abdul Hamid's sincerity in this matter, but it is a fact that last month the monarch took the oath of allegiance to the constitution and that an entirely new cabinet has been appointed, elections ordered immediately, and the Parliament summoned to meet on November 1. The Turkish capital received the news with impressive manifestations of joy, which were repeated throughout the empire. Crowds headed by bands and banners thronged the streets, cheering the Sultan and the constitution. Observers of the dramatic events throughout the empire during late July and early August point out as most interesting and significant the part played by the women. The correspondent of the London *Express* declares that many women appeared in the revolutionary processions in Macedonia, several of them unveiled and carrying banners. Despite the age-long prejudice of Mohammedans against such an act, these women were greeted with applause by the spectators, many



WHERE THE NEW TURKISH PARLIAMENT WILL MEET.

(The Hamidieh Palace, in Constantinople, where the Sultan resorts every Friday for the ceremony of the "Selamlik," or weekly prayers.)

men kissing their hands and saluting them as liberators of their country. At Constantinople the event was signalized by the dismissal of the reactionary court and army officials and the recall of most of the Turkish representatives abroad, their places being filled by men of more liberal views who are in sympathy with the program of the Young Turks. Just what this program is is not clear as yet. The Young Turks have declared themselves as the friends of the Macedonians, but as opposed to foreign "meddling." It is reported,—and denied,—that they will depose Abdul Hamid and seat his brother. Those European powers,—particularly Russia, Austria, Germany, and Great Britain,—which are deeply interested in the solution of the Macedonian problem, are watching the progress of events at Constantinople closely. Great Britain's interest is not unmixed with anxiety and apprehension as to the possible effect of this modernization of Turkey upon her millions of Mohammedan subjects throughout the world, who look toward the Turkish Sultan as the Caliph, the revered head of their religion. The European chancelleries have assumed that, in any event, a return of the old régime in Turkey is out of the question, and Austria has proceeded on this assumption to the extent of withdrawing her officers who have shared in the joint command of the Turkish gendarmerie in Macedonia. It is expected that the other powers will follow Austria.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From July 21 to August 20, 1908.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

July 22.—By unanimous opinion, the United States Court of Appeals for the Seventh District, at Chicago, reverses the decision in the case of the Government against the Standard Oil Company in which the latter was fined $29,400,000 by Judge Landis in the District Court.

July 23.—President Roosevelt directs the Attorney-General of the United States to take immediate steps for the retrial of the case of the Government against the Standard Oil Company.

July 24.—Governor Hughes, of New York, issues a statement in which he says that he will accept the renomination for the governorship if such renomination is desired by the Republican party.

July 25.—In the Democratic State primaries of Texas Governor Campbell is renominated; the proposition to submit a constitutional amendment for State prohibition is defeated....Chairman Hitchcock, of the Republican National Committee, holds a conference with Republican leaders of eight States at Chicago....Norman E. Mack, of Buffalo, N. Y., is chosen chairman of the Democratic National Committee to have charge of the campaign; Governor Haskell, of Oklahoma, is selected as treasurer....The National Currency Commission adjourns its session at Narragansett Pier, after naming two committees, which will report to the full commission on November 10.

July 27.—William H. Taft addresses the Ohio State Central and Executive Republican committees at Cincinnati....The National Convention of the Independence party meets at Chicago, with W. R. Hearst as temporary chairman.

July 28.—William H. Taft formally accepts the Republican nomination for the Presidency at the home of his brother, Charles P. Taft, in Cincinnati....The National Convention of the Independence party, at Chicago, nominates Thomas L. Hisgen, of Massachusetts, for President, and John Temple Graves, of Georgia, for Vice-President (see page 307).

July 30.—West Virginia Democrats nominate Louis Bennett for Governor.

August 1.—Attorney-General Bonaparte decides that Oklahoma's guarantee-fund plan cannot legally be applied to national banks.

August 4.—In the Kansas Republican primaries Joseph L. Bristow defeats Senator Chester I. Long for the United States Senatorship, and W. R. Stubbs is nominated for Governor....In the Republican primaries in Missouri, Attorney-General Herbert S. Hadley is named for Governor, and in the Democratic primaries William S. Cowherd receives a plurality of the votes.... In the Oklahoma primaries United States Senator Thomas P. Gore (Dem.) and Dennis T. Flynn (Rep.) are nominated without opposition for the Senatorship.

August 5.—W. J. Bryan issues a general appeal to Democrats for campaign funds.

August 6.—William H. Taft addresses the Virginia Bar Association at Hot Springs, giving his views on the law's delay and suggesting certain reforms.

August 7.—Chairman Mack opens the headquarters of the Democratic National Committee at Chicago.

August 8.—In the Illinois Republican primaries United States Senator Albert J. Hopkins is endorsed for the Senatorship and Governor Charles S. Deneen is renominated; in the Democratic primaries, Lawrence B. Stringer is endorsed for the Senatorship and Adlai E. Stevenson is nominated for Governor....Elmer Dover resigns the secretaryship of the Republican National Committee and is succeeded by William Hayward....Eugene V. Debs, the Socialist candidate for President, challenges President Gompers, of the American Federation of Labor, to debate the question of the anti-injunction plank in the Democratic platform.



AN AMERICAN WINS THE MARATHON.

(Queen Alexandra presenting a gold medal to John J. Hayes, winner of the Marathon race of twenty-six miles in connection with the Olympian games at London.)

August 12.—W. J. Bryan is officially informed

of his nomination to the Presidency by the Democratic party and delivers a speech of acceptance.

August 18.—James S. Sherman receives official notification of his nomination for the Vice-Presidency at his home in Utica, N. Y....E. W. Chafin, Presidential candidate for the Prohibition party, is formally informed of his nomination at Chicago (see page 301).

August 19.—Minnesota Democrats unanimously renominate Gov. John A. Johnson.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

July 23.—A committee of the Young Turk party send a memorandum to the representative of the Sultan setting forth the party's wishes and stating that if the demands are not complied with a Parliament will be established at Monastir....The South Australian Parliament is opened....The British Government appoints a departmental committee to inquire into the nation's meat supply with particular reference to the methods of the Beef Trust.

July 24.—The Sultan of Turkey proclaims the restoration of the constitution of 1876 and orders an immediate election of members of a Chamber of Deputies in accordance with the demands made by the Young Turk party.

July 25.—The Irish University bill, establishing two universities in Ireland, passes the British House of Commons....A crowd, estimated at 100,000, gathers in Hyde Park, London, for a demonstration in favor of the government's Licensing bill.

July 26.—The Sultan of Turkey issues a rescript asking the co-operation of the people for the Parliament and the crown....Honduran Government troops recapture the town of Choluteca, practically ending the revolution.

July 28.—The Sultan of Turkey takes the oath of allegiance to the constitution....The British House of Lords carries the amendment to the Old-Age Pension bill, which limits its operation to seven years, despite the warning that the action infringes the privileges of the House of Commons (see page 345)....The Peruvian Congress is opened.

July 29.—The Sultan of Turkey issues a call for the first Parliament to meet on November 1. ....A bill is introduced in the Portuguese Chamber of Deputies to expel the religious orders from the kingdom.

July 31.—The British House of Lords passes the Old-Age Pension bill in a form accepted by the House of Commons, which rejects the amendments of the Lords.

August 1.—The British Parliament adjourns until October 10, the royal assent having been given to 159 new acts of Parliament, including the Old-Age Pension bill....In the Cuban municipal and provincial elections the Conservatives are generally successful.

August 2.—A new Turkish cabinet is announced.

August 5.—The newly formed Turkish ministry resigns and three ministers of the old régime are arrested....At the meeting of the new Finnish Diet the president, in reply to the speech from the throne, insists on a separate administration for Finland.

August 6.—Another cabinet is formed in Turkey.

August 9.—Czar Nicholas of Russia relieves Grand Duke Nicholas Nicholaievich from the presidency of the Council for National Defense.

August 13.—Alfredo Zayas withdraws as the Liberal candidate for the Presidency of Cuba.

August 16.—As a part of the new government program in Turkey it is announced that all laws not compatible with the new régime will be amended, and that the army, navy, and all government departments will be reorganized.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

July 21.—Korean insurgents are reported to have killed fifty Japanese troops on the Russian frontier.

July 22.—President Castro of Venezuela expels M. de Reus, the Minister of the Netherlands, at Caracas.

July 24.—President Fallières of France is received by the King of Sweden....An agreement is reached extending the present *modus vivendi* regarding the rights of Americans in Newfoundland waters pending a settlement by the Hague Tribunal.

July 25.—The Dutch Government sends a cruiser for Minister de Reus, expelled from Venezuela by President Castro.

July 27.—The Dutch cruiser *Gelderland* is ordered from Willemstad to Venezuela to protect the interests of citizens of Holland....President Fallières of France is received by Czar Nicholas of Russia....Mexico orders the deportation of 600 Chinamen who recently arrived at Salina Cruz.

July 28.—It is announced that a complete understanding has been reached between France and Russia on all questions in which the two countries are interested....President Pardo of Peru announces that the dispute over the boundary with Bolivia will be submitted to arbitration....Information is received at Washington that President Davila of Honduras has canceled the exequaturs of the consular representatives of the various governments at Ceiba.

July 29.—A boycott is started among the Dutch residents of Willemstad against a Venezuelan schooner.

July 30.—A Dutch battleship is ordered to be made ready for sailing to the Caribbean Sea in view of the feeling developed against Venezuela....Sir Gerard Lowther, the new British Ambassador to Turkey, is warmly received by Liberal Turks at Constantinople....The peace congress in London takes action urging the arrest of armaments by the nations.

July 31.—Venezuela sends a note to the Netherlands setting forth alleged "insults and injuries" to which the former country has been subjected.

August 1.—President Castro of Venezuela, demanding an apology from Holland for alleged insults, withdraws the exequaturs of all the Dutch consuls and vice-consuls in Venezuela.

August 2.—The Dutch cruiser *Gelderland* reports that the Venezuelan authorities refuse to allow communications to be sent ashore.

August 3.—Belgium announces a willingness to submit disputes arising from the creation of

concessions in the Congo to arbitration....Emperor William of Germany is received by the King and Queen of Sweden.

August 6.—Honduras transmits to the United States its refusal to comply with the wishes of this Government by revoking the cancellation of the exequaturs of American consular officers.

August 9.—Germany opens an exchange of views among the great powers regarding the protection of Liberia....It is announced that President Castro of Venezuela has sent Nicolas Veloz Goitico, former Chargé d'Affaires at Washington, to occupy the same post at Berlin.

August 11.—Nehmed Ali Bey, Turkish Minister to the United States, is officially notified of his recall....King Edward of England and Emperor William of Germany confer at Kronberg.

August 12.—Great Britain and Austria agree that Turkey must not be hampered in the attempt to carry out reforms....Chinese authorities at Chin-Chow seize a steamer laden with arms and ammunition and consigned to Japanese merchants....Mundji Bey, the Turkish Consul-General at New York, assumes his duties as Acting Minister at Washington.

August 13.—The British Foreign Office, announcing the conclusion of a *modus vivendi* regarding the Newfoundland fisheries, says that Great Britain and the United States unite in regarding the exchange of notes on the subject as constituting an agreement for the season of 1908.

August 14.—It is announced that a basis has been laid for a tariff treaty between the United States and France.

August 15.—Hussien Kiazim Bey, who now represents Turkey at Bucharest, is appointed Turkish Minister to the United States.

August 18.—Persia appoints diplomatic representatives at Athens, Greece, for the first time in 2399 years....President Castro refuses to allow the Brazilian Minister to take charge of French interests in Venezuela....It is announced that the United States has informed Holland that any action except occupation of territory will be satisfactory regarding Venezuela.

August 19.—Orders are issued to put the Dutch warships in condition for active service in case of failure to settle amicably the dispute with Venezuela.

August 20.—The Belgian Chamber of Deputies, by vote of 83 to 55, passes the Congo annexation treaty....Turkey promises to withdraw troops from all sections which are admitted to belong to Persia and to bring about an equitable settlement regarding the boundary.... Austria gives notice of her intention to withdraw the officers in command of the Turkish gendarmerie.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

July 22.—The Prince of Wales arrives at Quebec to be present at the tercentenary celebration....The American battleship fleet sails from Honolulu for New Zealand....A merger of grain elevators involving $20,000,000 is announced in Wisconsin.

July 23.—The Quebec tercentenary celebrations begin with a pageant and an interchange of addresses between the Prince of Wales and Vice-President Fairbanks of the United States. ....The Wagner festival is opened at Beyreuth with a new study of "Lohengrin."



THE LATE SAMUEL E. MOFFETT.

(Mr. Moffett, who died suddenly on August 1, was one of the ablest of the younger New York journalists. One of the last articles that he wrote for publication was the account of the Denver convention which appeared in the August number of this REVIEW.)

July 24.—Twenty-five men are drowned in a tunnel in Switzerland....The Marathon race in connection with the Olympic Games in London is won by Hayes, the American....A tramway strike is begun in Sydney, N. S. W.

July 25.—Announcement is made of a reduction in parcels-post rates from the United States to Bolivia and Peru....Queen Alexandra presents the gold medals to the successful competitors in the Olympic Games in the Stadium at London.

July 26.—Glenn H. Curtiss makes a flight of 350 yards in the aeroplane *June Bug* at Hammondsport, N. Y. (see page 310).

July 28.—The Chinese passenger steamer *Ying Ching* founders in a typhoon near Hong Kong and 300 lives are lost.

July 31.—Twenty-three miners are entombed at Cold Creek, B. C.

August 3.—Fire in the elevator and freight warehouse district in Chicago destroys property valued at over $2,000,000; eight persons are reported killed and fifty injured.

August 4.—Forest fires of several days' duratio in the Kootenay Valley destroy property valued at over $6,000,000, including the towns of Fernie, Hosmer, and Crow's Nest, B. C.; fifty persons are believed to have lost their lives; several thousand people are rendered homeless.... Eight thousand shopmen on the Canadian

Pacific Railroad system are ordered out on strike.

August 5.—Count Zeppelin's airship is destroyed by fire during a storm, after a remarkable journey (see page 310)....Between 8000 and 12,000 shopmen employed by the Canadian Pacific Railroad go on a strike because of dissatisfaction with the ruling of the Parliamentary Conciliation Board.



THE LATE IRA D. SANKEY.
(For many years the associate of Dwight L. Moody in evangelistic work.)

August 8.—Wilbur Wright, of Ohio, in his aeroplane covers three kilometers in 1 minute and 46 seconds at Le Mans, France (see page 310)....The American battleship fleet arrives in the harbor of Auckland, N. Z.

August 10.—The New Zealand Government gives a dinner at Auckland for Admiral Sperry and the officers of the American battleship fleet. ....The complaint of the Railroad Commission of Texas against the railroads that have given notice of increases in freight rates is filed with the Interstate Commerce Commission.

August 15.—The Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Engineers, of Toronto, applies to the Canadian Government for an arbitration board to decide the Canadian Pacific strike question.

August 17.—The fourth International Esperanto Congress is opened at Dresden with 1800 persons in attendance....The United States Army Airship Board decides that Captain Baldwin's dirigible balloon has met all conditions, and it will be accepted by the Government.

August 18.—Seventy men are entombed by an explosion in the Maypole coal mine at Weigann, England.

August 19.—The American battleship fleet arrives at Sydney, N. S. W.

August 20.—The United States War Department issues an order releasing twenty-one enlisted men convicted by illegal court-martial in Cuba.

OBITUARY.

July 21.—Rt. Rev. Henry Codman Potter, Protestant Episcopal Bishop of New York, 74 (see page 158 of the August REVIEW OF REVIEWS)....Dimitrios Bikelas, the Greek poet and historian, 73.

July 22.—Sir William Randal Cremer, founder of the Interparliamentary Conferences, 70.... Cardinal Carlo Nocella, of Italy, 82.

July 23.—Major James F. Meline, for fifteen years Assistant Treasurer of the United States, 67....Charles Lippincott, of Philadelphia, an inventor of note, 83.

July 24.—Dr. Fernando Guachalla, President-elect of Bolivia.

July 26.—Gen. Joshua H. Bates, a veteran of the Civil and Seminole Indian wars, 91.

July 27.—Prof. William L. Montague, of Amherst College, 77.

July 28.—Sir Thomas Stevenson, scientfic analyst to the British Home Office, 70....Representative Llewellyn Powers, of the Fourth Maine Congress District, 70.

July 29.—Ex-Gov. Samuel Willis Tucker Lanham, of Texas, 62....Kuno von Euchtritz, the well-known German sculptor, 52....William Potts, author and social worker, 70....Dr. Alexander Hamilton Laidlaw, of New York, 80.

July 30.—Ex-Gov. James H. Budd, of California, 57.

August 1.—Samuel E. Moffet, the New York author and journalist, 48.

August 2.—Ezra Butler McCagg, a leading citizen of Chicago, 82.

August 3.—Ex-Congressman Edward W. Greenman, of New York, 68....Dr. Frederick K. H. von Lucanus, chief of Emperor William's so-called civil cabinet, 77.

August 4.—United States Senator William B. Allison, of Iowa, 79....Miss Katharine Prescott Wormeley, the author and translator, 78.... Bronson Howard, the American dramatist, 66.

August 5.—Rev. Dr. Edward Wallace Neil, one of the leaders in the high-church Episcopalian movement, 55.

August 6.—Mrs. Eliza Stewart, of Ohio, a noted temperance advocate, 92.

August 7.—The Marquis di Rudini, former Premier of Italy, 69.

August 9.—Warren R. Rawson, a leading horticulturist of New England, 61.

August 10.—Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton, a writer of poems and stories, 73.

August 11.—Ainsworth R. Spofford, for many years librarian of the Congressional Library at Washington, 84....Arthur Ranc, the French author and politician, 77.

August 12.—Rear-Admiral James Kelsey Cogswell, U. S. N., retired, 61.

August 13.—Ira D. Sankey, the noted hymn-writer, singer, and evangelist, 67.

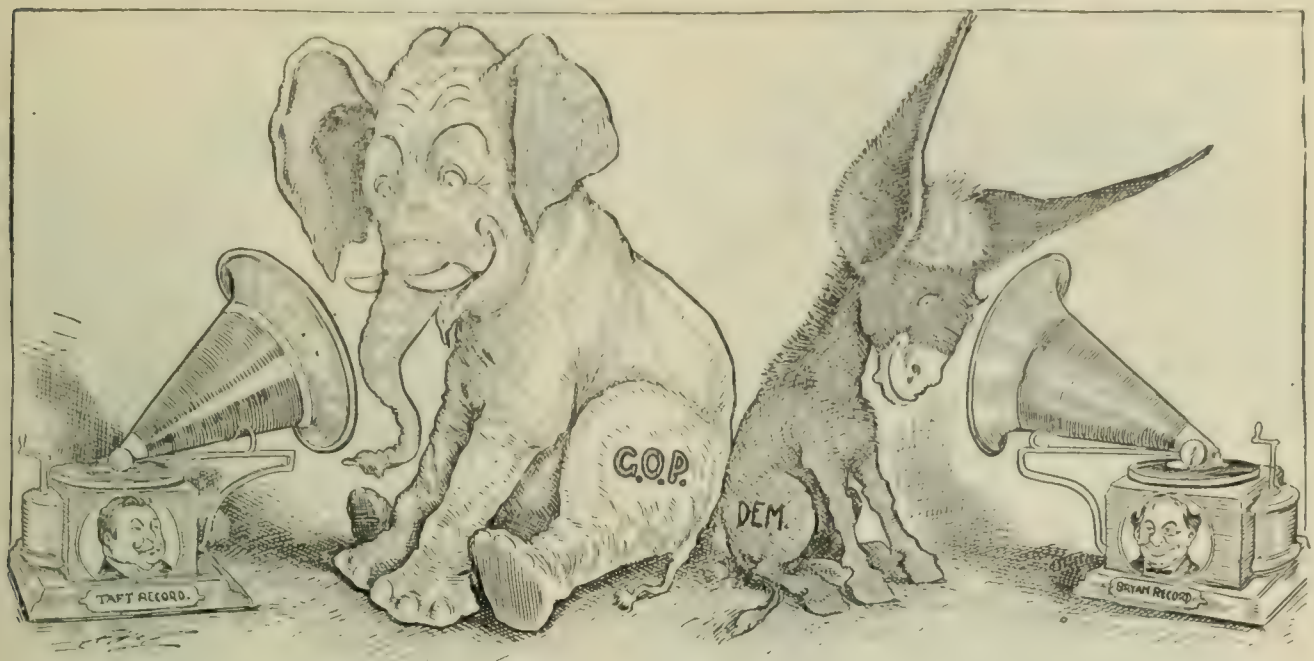
August 14.—Prof. Friedrich Paulsen, of Berlin, 62....James Wilson Alexander MacDonald, the American sculptor, 84.

August 15.—Ex-Congressman Porter Sheldon, of Jamestown, N. Y., 77.

August 18.—Dr. Henry Hopkins, former president of Williams College, 71.

August 20.—Ex-Congressman William G. Laidlaw, of New York, 68....Col. William Walker, editorial writer on the New Orleans *Picayune* for the last thirty years, 65....John V. Farwell, Sr., the Chicago merchant, 83.

SOME POLITICAL CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



"THEIR MASTER'S VOICE."

For the first time in the history of campaigning two principal political parties are making practical use of the phonograph.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



BRYAN STARTS THE FIRST BONFIRE OF THE CAMPAIGN.

From the *Herald* (New York).



THEY'RE OFF!

From the *World* (New York).

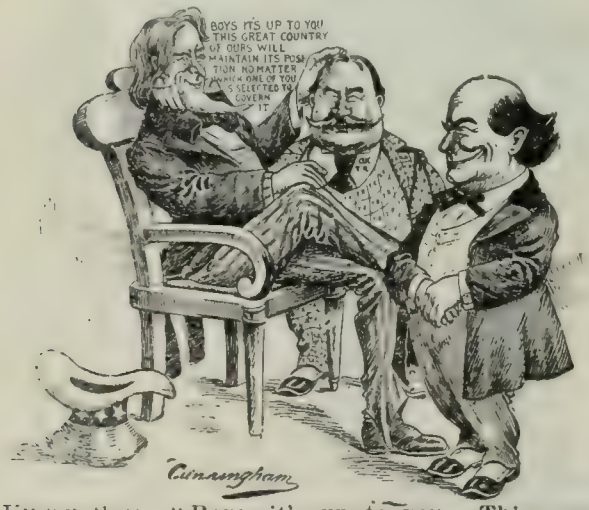


A SQUELCHING REJOINDER.

OHIO CHARLEY: "Aw, you ain't such a much! My brother Bill's a runnin' fer President!"

NEBRASKA CHARLEY: "Aw, fade away! By brother Bill's run for President three times!"

From the *Sun* (Baltimore).



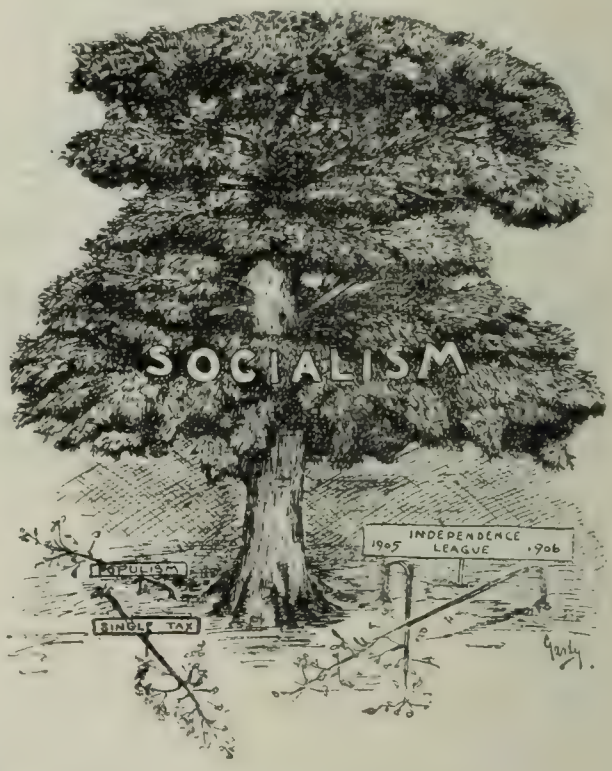
UNCLE SAM: "Boys, it's up to you. This great country of ours will maintain its position no matter which one of you is selected to govern it."

From the *Herald* (Washington).



JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER: "He beats me."

From the *American* (New York).



The difference between the growth of the tree of Socialism and some of the other parties.

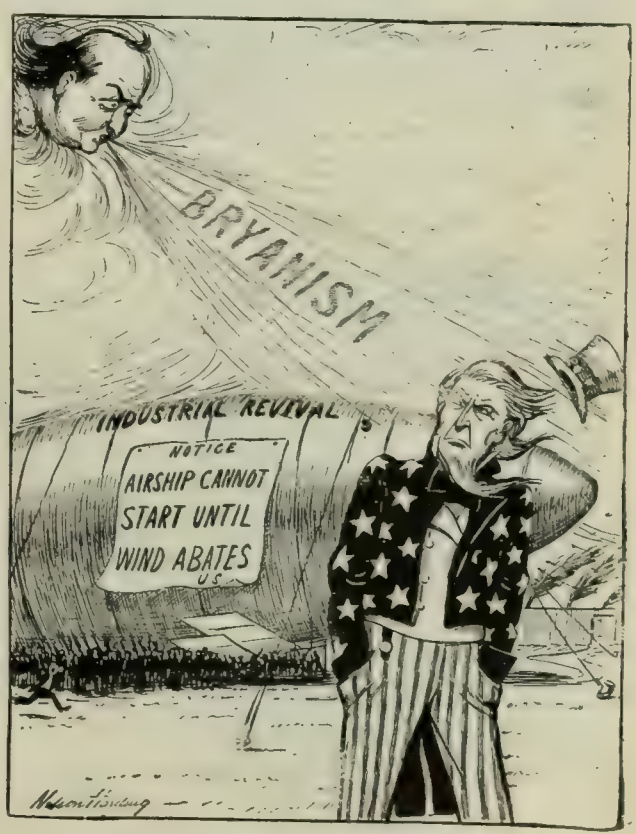
From the *Call* (New York).



WILL THEY BITE? WELL, PERHAPS.
From the *Herald* (New York).



"NEVER TOUCHED ME!"
From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia).



TOO WINDY FOR THE FLIGHT.
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



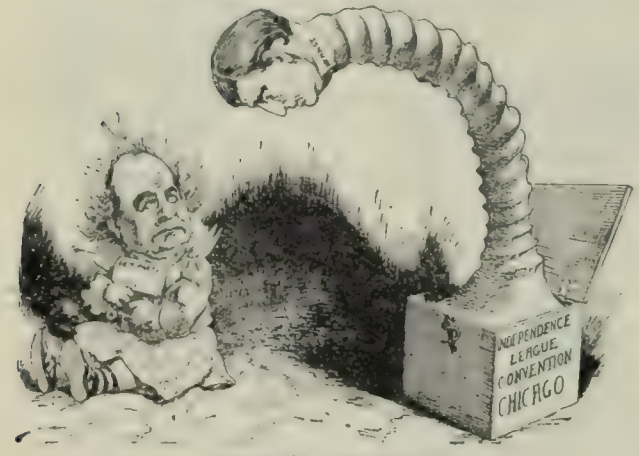
A BIRD HE CAN'T MANAGE!

From the *American* (New York).



A HEAVY HANDICAP.

From the *Chronicle* (San Francisco).



BRYAN'S NEMESIS.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



"MR. BRYAN PLANS TO LEAD THE NEW YORK FIGHT IN PERSON."—Lincoln Dispatch.

From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



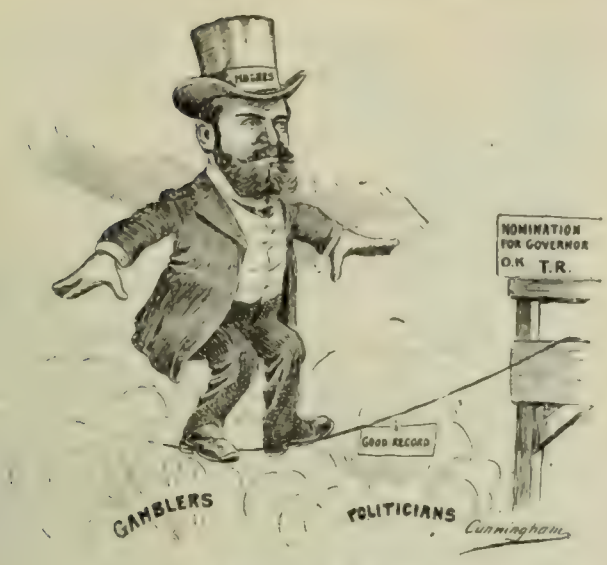
MORE CANNED TALK.

From the *Globe* (New York).



BRYAN: "I'd like to take you along, but the lady objects."

From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



THE GOAL IS IN SIGHT.
From the *Herald* (Washington).



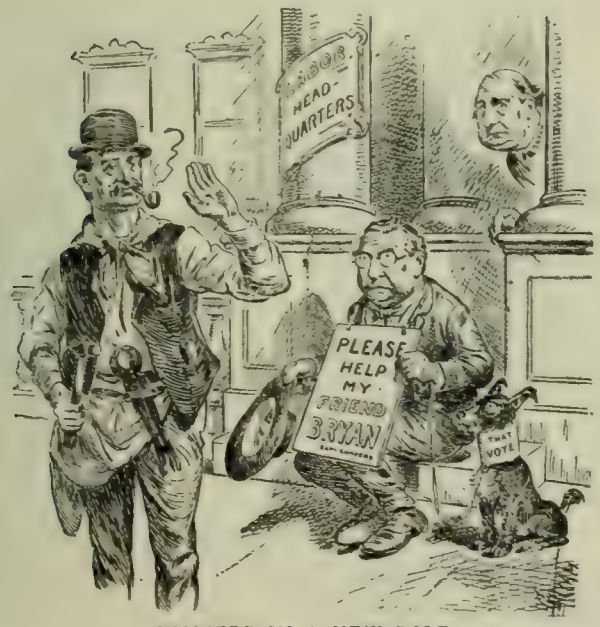
AUSTRALIA'S WELCOME TO THE FLEET.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



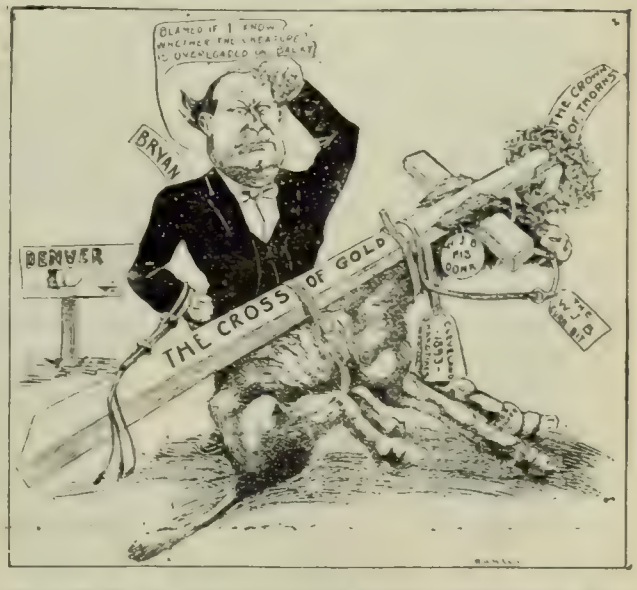
CHEER UP!
From the *Traveler* (Boston).



THE SOLID SOUTH IN DANGER.
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



GOMPERS IN A NEW ROLE.
From the *Globe* (New York).



NO DANGER OF CARRYING THE LABOR VOTE WITH THIS PARAPHERNALIA.
From the *Call* (New York).



GOVERNOR JOHNSON: "It's going to be awfully hard to refuse."

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



IN THE SWIM.

LA FOLLETTE: "Come on in, boys, the water's fine."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



THE ACE OF MIRACLES IS PAST.

From the *Traveler* (Boston).



TAFT'S WRITING MASTER.

From the *World* (New York).



FASHION PLATE FOR THE PRESIDENTIAL CANDIDATES.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

THE SOCIALIST PARTY IN THE PRESENT CAMPAIGN.

BY ROBERT HUNTER.

THE rapidity with which the Socialist movement has evolved into a national political party astonishes even the close observer. Only a few years ago the Socialists were a small sect. They were little known outside their own circle, and inside of that circle they spent much of their time quarreling over their economic theories and political tactics. They were too few in number to have to be concerned with what they should do when they began to elect representatives to public bodies, and, consequently, most of their time was spent in flaying the existing order. In 1900 they polled only about 90,000 votes. Their press was insignificant, their funds meager, and their organization hardly formed.

To-day all this is quite different. They have a well-developed organization, extending to every State in the Union. Their dues-paying membership numbers over 40,000. Thousands of speakers are at work carrying on their propaganda. Scores of weekly papers are published, one of them reaching at times as many as 2,000,000 persons. In New York and Chicago daily papers have been started, with a circulation between them of perhaps 70,000. Certainly the Socialists are no longer a little sect. Many of them now serve on municipal councils and in state legislatures. Everywhere they have a creditable following, and in some places they are on the eve of victory. With growth in number they have also grown in confidence, in ability, and in a sense of their immediate responsibility.

THE MAY CONVENTION AT CHICAGO.

The change in the character of the movement was clearly shown in the national convention held at Chicago from May 11 to May 17 last. Representatives were there from every State. Many were farmers, who represented an altogether new element in the movement. A large number were trade-union officials, and all but a few were American-born citizens. Among the most noteworthy delegates of the trade-union element were Max Hayes, the editor of the Cleveland *Citizen* and a well-known debater at the congresses of the American Federation of Labor; Robert Bandlow and Barney Berlyn, active workers in the trade-union movement; James Carey, formerly a Socialist representative in the Massachusetts legislature and a trade-unionist, and William D. Haywood, formerly secretary of the Western Federation of Miners. Ellis O. Jones, of Ohio; John Spargo and William J. Ghent, of New York, are well-known writers. The Christian Socialist element was represented by the Rev. Edward Ellis Carr, editor of the *Christian Socialist,* and the Rev. Eliot White, formerly secretary of the Western Diocese of Massachusetts. John C. Chase, formerly Socialist Mayor of Haverhill, Mass., and an old member of the Boot and Shoe Workers' Union, was a prominent delegate. Nearly all of the delegates from Wisconsin were active trade-unionists, and most of them were either city councilors or members of the State Legislature. The chairman of the convention for the first day was Morris Hillquit, a well-known New York lawyer and also the historian of the American Socialist movement.

The quality of debate in the convention itself and throughout the committee-rooms was of a high order. The delegates handled the problems of organization, of platform, and of campaign-planning with a quiet efficiency which would have been impossible a few years ago. There were perhaps a few there who still believed in Socialism as a utopia that would be set up and made to operate at a certain hour on a certain day. But the majority no longer held this view. They realized that Socialism is not a religion nor the party a church. Whatever the final aims of Socialism may be, nearly all the delegates realized that the party is an organization that must fight step by step, and be prepared to handle its work efficiently, and acquit itself honorably of any responsibilities that may be placed upon it. They realized that they must formulate a platform of immediate reforms to guide Socialists already in the legislatures and

city councils, as well as those others who will be elected in the coming campaign. There was little idle speculation upon what the future holds. The delegates were too busy for that, and in the midst of pressing problems of organization, education, and agitation they were absorbed in the very practical consideration of what the party should do now.

A PROGRAM OF IMMEDIATE DEMANDS.

Those who have not observed these developments in the party will be somewhat surprised to find that the main work of the convention was in drafting an immediate program. Heretofore a statement of general principles had served the purpose of the party, and while this statement was not omitted from the program, the platform committee spent nearly the entire week of the convention preparing a detailed statement of immediate demands. The chairman of the committee was A. M. Simons, a graduate of the University of Wisconsin, and at present the editor of the Chicago *Daily Socialist*. Victor L. Berger, of Milwaukee; Morris Hillquit, of New York, and John M. Work, of Iowa, were prominent members of the committee. The platform was presented to the convention by Mr. Simons, and after a heated discussion as to whether or not it was advisable to include a statement of immediate demands the following platform was adopted with few dissenting voices:

GENERAL DEMANDS.

1. The immediate Government relief for the unemployed workers by building schools, by reforesting of cut-over and waste lands, by reclamation of arid tracts and the building of canals, and by extending all other useful public works. All persons employed on such works shall be employed directly by the Government under an eight-hour workday and at the prevailing union wages. The Government shall also loan money to States and municipalities without interest for the purpose of carrying on public works. It shall contribute to the funds of labor organizations for the purpose of assisting their unemployed members, and shall take such other measures within its power as will lessen the widespread misery of the workers caused by the misrule of the capitalist class.

2. The collective ownership of railroads, telegraphs, telephones, steamship lines, and all other means of social transportation and communication, and all land.

3. The collective ownership of all industries which are organized on a national scale and in which competition has virtually ceased to exist.

4. The extension of the public domain to include mines, quarries, oil wells, forests, and water-power.

5. The scientific reforesting of timber lands, and the reclamation of swamp lands; the land so reforested or reclaimed to be permanently retained as a part of the public domain.

6. The absolute freedom of press, speech, and assemblage.

INDUSTRIAL DEMANDS.

7. The improvement of the industrial conditions of the workers:

(a) By shortening the workday in keeping with the increased productiveness of machinery.

(b) By securing to every worker a rest period of not less than a day and a half each week.

(c) By securing a more effective inspection of workshops and factories.

(d) By forbidding the employment of children under sixteen years of age.

(e) By forbidding the interstate transportation of the products of child labor, of convict labor, and of all uninspected factories.

(f) By abolishing official charity and substituting in its place compulsory insurance against unemployment, illness, accidents, invalidism, old age, and death.

POLITICAL DEMANDS.

8. The extension of inheritance taxes, graduated in proportion to the amount of the bequests and to the nearness of kin.

9. A graduated income tax.

10. Unrestricted and equal suffrage for men and women, and we pledge ourselves to engage in an active campaign in that direction.

11. The initiative and referendum, proportional representation, and the right of recall.

12. The abolition of the Senate.

13. The abolition of the power usurped by the Supreme Court of the United States to pass upon the constitutionality of legislation enacted by Congress. National laws to be repealed or abrogated only by an act of Congress or by referendum of the whole people.

14. The abolition of the veto power of the President.

15. That the Constitution be made amendable by majority vote.

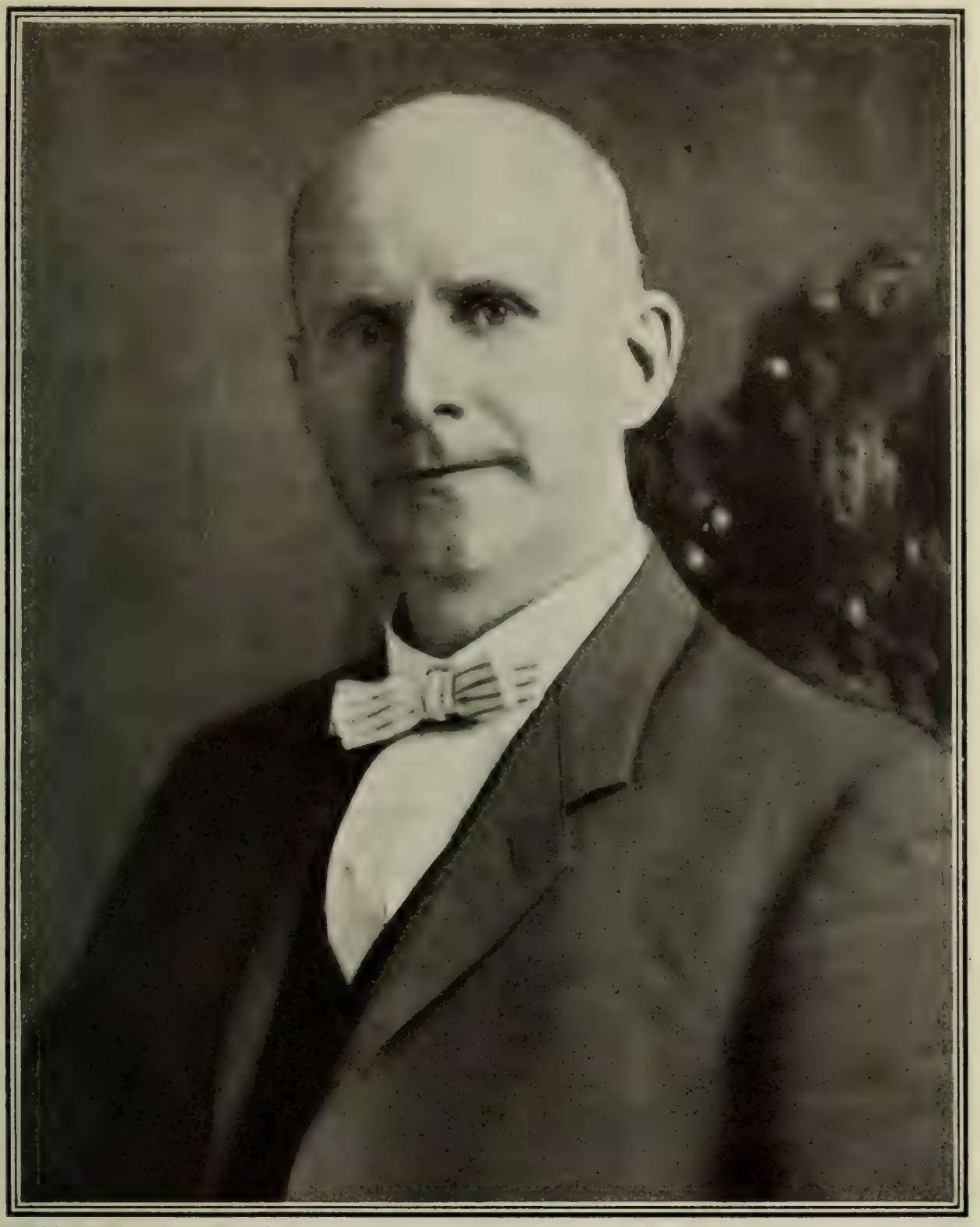
16. The enactment of further measures for general education and for the conservation of health. The Bureau of Education to be made a department. The creation of a department of public health.

17. The separation of the present Bureau of Labor from the Department of Commerce and Labor, and the establishment of a department of labor.

18. That all judges be elected by the people for short terms, and that the power to issue injunctions should be curbed by immediate legislation.

19. The free administration of justice.

As will be seen, few if any of the demands are of a speculative character. Many of the measures advocated have already been worked out in various European countries, and if the entire immediate program were carried out it would not mean the abolition of capitalism or the establishment of Socialism.



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EUGENE V. DEBS, OF INDIANA.

(The Socialist candidate for President.)

Obviously, therefore, the party sees that for years to come it must work steadily at democratizing our political institutions and altering the present industrial system so as to make conditions more equitable for the workers.

ACHIEVEMENTS OF WISCONSIN SOCIALISTS.

The strongest influence in the convention that led to the adoption of an immediate program came from the Wisconsin delegation. Socialism is making great strides in that State. In several cities it is on the point of getting complete control. It has six men in the State Legislature, and a small but active minority in various city councils. At the last election in Milwaukee, a city of 400,000 people, it came within 2000 votes of electing the Mayor. In order "to make good" in that

city the party has been forced for some time to take issue with the Democrats and Republicans upon questions of immediate importance. Its first work was to wage a vigorous campaign against political grafters. It exposed the corrupt aldermen in the old parties, and followed up the exposure by contesting their re-election. In every section of Milwaukee the citizens were given an opportunity to vote for an honest candidate instead of being forced, as in former years, to accept the better of two corrupt candidates. Even the opposition press has commended the service rendered in this respect by the Socialists. In carrying out their economic program the Socialists have forced the public-service corporations to give improved service, to reduce their rates, and to increase their remuneration to the city. On one street-car line in Milwaukee the fare is now 3 cents, and another line pays $90,000 more in taxes than it did before the Socialists began their campaign.

Obviously a party working in opposition to two other parties, each of which has a larger number of aldermen, can do little more than criticise, but that in itself is a valuable service in public affairs. Vile streets, tumble-down tenements, high death-rates, poor public service, grafting politicians, and a police force in league with law-breakers are too often found in our American cities. Occasionally the people rise in wrath to turn one set of grafters out only to put another set in. In Milwaukee the discontented elements use the Socialist party as a club to force the old parties into some decency of action. The evils of the present economic system, the conditions which make life intolerable to the many, the grafting and corruption which too often make of our cities political institutions for serving private interests, are made the most of by the Socialists. Every day and night they harp upon these evils, and use every means possible to arouse the people to vigilance. Most of the old-party politicians will tell you that the Socialists are merciless critics and troublesome public officials,—acting somewhat no doubt like an uneasy conscience.

For the purpose of putting the Socialist program before the people the representatives in the Wisconsin Legislature introduced seventy measures. It was not expected that these measures would pass; it was only an effort to lay concretely before the public exactly what the Socialists intend to do, and the steps they will pursue to attain their ends. But the party did not rest upon this mere demonstration. It took up certain measures which already had the support of the public, and by vigorous parliamentary work it forced through several of its bills; among others, one providing for an eight-hour day for telegraphers and one limiting the use of child labor.

The Wisconsin delegates in the national convention met others from the West and South who thought of Socialism as little more than an ideal state of society. The latter were still in the formative, agitational stage, while the Wisconsin delegates and some others with their actual experience were alive to the fact that the party was soon to have its hands full of immediate responsibilities, and that it must now clearly define what it intended to have its elected representatives do. I say what *it* intended to have its elected representatives do, because in the Socialist party there are no bosses, and the rank and file are supreme.

THOROUGH ORGANIZATION COMBINED WITH PARTY DEMOCRACY.

The party organization of the Socialists is a real achievement in American politics. It is composed of about 3000 locals. Affiliated with the locals are about 40,000 members. Each member pays in dues $3 a year, so that the income from this source alone is about $120,000. The locals elect city, State, and national committees, which administer the party affairs. There is a National Executive Committee which meets at frequent intervals, and the chief executive is the national secretary, who is elected by referendum of the entire membership. All party affairs are passed upon by the members, and even the platform adopted by the national convention was submitted to the rank and file for final decision. The 300 delegates at the convention were elected by referendum. Their railway and other expenses were paid by the party, and most of their work was planned beforehand by the membership in the various locals. Not a principle is decided, not a delegate or official chosen, without a vote of the rank and file.

In Chicago, on one of the main streets, there is a large building entirely occupied by the Socialists. One whole floor is given over to the offices of the national secretary, J. Mahlon Barnes, who is the chief executive of the party. He was formerly an official of the Cigarmakers' Union, and has repeatedly been elected to the conventions of the

American Federation of Labor. His sole education was received at the Soldiers' Orphans' Home at Mount Joy, although at present he is one of the most capable administrators, speakers, and writers in the movement. The national headquarters is one of the busiest places in that busy Western city. From that office over 125 paid organizers are sent on their routes over the country. They are at work the year round organizing new locals, speaking, agitating, selling and distributing literature. Some of them are clergymen. Others are trade unionists, and still others are farmers. Tons of literature are sent from the national office and from the various Socialist publishing-houses, and direct relations are maintained with every local in the country.



BEN HANFORD, OF NEW YORK.
(The Socialist candidate for Vice-President.)

In a big cabinet, each in its shallow drawer, is a map of every State in the Union. These maps are covered with pins of various colors. A red pin means a local, a yellow pin an isolated party member, and a black and white pin a sympathizer who is worth going after. Some States, those in the South especially, have few locals and few members. Oklahoma and Arkansas are literally covered with pins, while New York, California, Massachusetts, and Wisconsin have a large number of locals and many thousand members.

AN EFFICIENT AND TIRELESS PROPAGANDA.

Curiously enough, great progress in recent years has been made in quite unexpected quarters. The farmers, whom many people have considered immune from Socialist doctrines, are coming into the party in great numbers. In literary and university circles a great many converts are being made, and special societies for propaganda have been organized to work among the so-called "intellectuals" and among clergymen. Within the last two or three years hundreds of clergymen have joined the Socialist party. In the East alone there are, I believe, 300 clergymen affiliated to the Christian Socialist Fellowship, an organization that has declared in its platform its entire agreement with the purposes of the Socialist party. Among the most noteworthy of Socialist clergymen is

the Bishop of Utah, and it is well known that one of the oldest and most beautiful of the Episcopal churches of New York City has regular Sunday evening lectures upon Socialism. Few people have expected Socialism to make any considerable headway outside the working-class, but its progress among the working-class itself is hardly more remarkable than it is among the farmers, the professional men, clergymen, and other classes who are entirely outside the trade-union movement.

The party, through the national office, the State offices, and the locals, carries on an incredible agitation. Besides organizers who go directly from the national office, every State has its own organizers; every local, and often each small branch of a local, has paid or voluntary organizers. Altogether there are probably not less than 4000 speakers at work every night in the year lecturing, campaigning, and selling literature. Nearly every one of the 40,000 members of the party considers himself a missionary and undertakes some active work. Each one agrees to call upon neighbors, to urge subscriptions to the papers of the party, or to sell and distribute Socialist literature. At present there is perhaps more Socialist literature circulated in the United States than in any other country in the world, with the possible exception of Germany. Not less than 100 weekly papers are now espousing the cause of Socialism. The *Appeal to Reason,* of Girard, Kan., reaches fully 400,000 people each week, and *Wilshire's Magazine,* a monthly, has a circulation of about 400,000. Several of the trade-union journals support editorially the Socialist party, while of course the Chicago *Daily Socialist,* the New York Evening *Call,* the Jewish *Forward,* the German *Volkzeitung,* and other Socialist daily papers are powerful adjuncts to the propaganda.

It would be difficult to overestimate the power of this continuous campaign of education. A great deal of comment is made by the opposition press when some prominent and well-known person, such as Jack London, Upton Sinclair, J. G. Phelps Stokes, or Joseph Medill Patterson, becomes an active Socialist. Only at such times do our opponents seem to be conscious that there is such a thing as an active Socialist propaganda. One sometimes wonders what their agitation would be if they fully grasped the significance of the fact that thousands of organizers, speakers, lecturers, and soap-box campaigners, as well as nearly all of the 40,000 members of the Socialist party, are carrying on a tireless and never-ending campaign. Indeed, few persons outside the movement realize the extent of the propaganda now carried on in every working-class district of this country.

DEBS AN AGITATOR, NOT A POLITICIAN.

Unquestionably the greatest Socialist agitator is the candidate for the Presidency, Mr. Eugene V. Debs. No one else had the slightest chance of being nominated at Chicago. Some few delegates thought the emphasis of the campaign should be laid upon the achievements that can already be credited to the Socialist party. They would have preferred to have seen some one nominated who had a record of work done in some legislature, but even they knew that as a public speaker there was no one in the movement comparable to Debs. Besides that, Debs is adored by the party members. Few men who know Debs only through his newspaper reputation could believe how much he is admired by those who know him personally. He is not a great politician. He long since gave over politics in the ordinary sense. He is really an evangelist,—a kind of Luther, leading men to faith and sacrifice. Not even his most bitter opponent would deny that he is a man of intellect and ability, but those who follow him speak of his devotion, of his sacrifice, and of his love. He is now fifty-three years of age. He was educated in the common schools, and worked first as a railway fireman. In his early manhood he participated in politics, and was for a time the city clerk of Terre Haute, Ind., and later he was for two terms a member of the Legislature of that State. But the working-class movement came to him as an inspiration. From 1880 to 1893 he was grand secretary of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen. Later he formed the American Railway Union, which was an effort to organize all railway men into one all-inclusive organization. He was one of the first victims of the injunction, and spent six months in prison for contempt of court. In prison he became a Socialist, and since that time has devoted all his energies to the cause of Socialism.

Like all crusaders, Debs is misunderstood, maligned, and feared by those who do not know him; but if any one will go to Terre Haute, where Debs has lived his life, he will find few men who do not love him. Some believe his doctrines dangerous; others believe them impractical. Some say Debs is too good

for this world. But no one doubts his sincerity, his unselfishness, his great gifts, or the purity and nobleness of his character. Some very practical men cannot understand one who knows no compromise and never thinks of expediency. When Debs gave up politics to go into the trade-union movement, and then a well-paid position in the trade-union movement to go into a new organization that seemed doomed to failure, and then even from that poor organization into an even poorer thing, the Socialist movement, the practical people of Terre Haute felt that Debs was a failure.

As a matter of fact Debs was blundering about trying to find his *métier*. As an executive, as an organizer, or as a politician he was not exceptionally gifted. But as a speaker he has few if any equals. Not only his friends, but Debs himself, realized this great power, and he became a wandering agitator who for ten years has gone up and down the land carrying the message of Socialism. He is known in every part of the country. The other day over 20,000 people came to hear him in Oklahoma, and a day or so later in Milwaukee 25,000 stood in a blistering heat listening to his speech. Whatever the practical people of Terre Haute, who have never understood him, may think, the poets and the plain people understand Debs, and multitudes who will not vote for him agree heartily with James Whitcomb Riley and Eugene Field, who have so often given him their tributes in prose and verse. Preaching his "inspired evangel of fraternity," he has gone from good positions to nothing, from the promise of ease and quiet and comfort to the life of a wandering tramp-preacher.

Ben Hanford, candidate for the Vice-Presidency, has been a member of the Typographical Union for twenty-eight years. He has led a life of extraordinary devotion to the trade-union and Socialist cause. He is well known in the working-class movement and is extremely popular. Among the best of Socialist orators and writers, he has ever tried to do the work of two or three men,—to be at his trade every day and on the soap-box every night,—until he has finally broken his health; so that it is unlikely that he will be able to appear on the Socialist platform during the present campaign.

SIZE OF THE VOTE EXPECTED.

As to what Socialists expect in the way of votes this fall little need be said. Of course the Socialist vote has never yet been an accurate test of the extent of Socialist sentiment. Unfortunately some Socialists believe that they are throwing away their votes when they support a candidate who has no chance of winning. There seems to be a rather widespread belief that to vote for the least bad of two corrupt candidates, one of whom is pretty certain to win, is more advisable than to vote for a clean candidate who has little chance of winning. Other voters are sympathetic to Socialism, but do not understand it thoroughly, and often believe that little can be accomplished by voting for it now. But as the party grows in strength and becomes itself more practical these voters are more and more inclined to support Socialist candidates. In the last campaign nearly half a million votes were cast for Socialism in spite of the fact that the organization was weak, the funds insignificant, and the press of the party reaching not more than 200,000 people. Certainly the Socialist sentiment to-day is widespread. The organization is prepared to make a big campaign, and the press of the party reaches not less than a million voters.

The tendency toward Socialism is strikingly shown in the trade-union movement, and it has received an added impetus as a result of Mr. Gompers' attempt to have union labor support the Democratic ticket. He has forced politics actively into the unions, and a number of important bodies have condemned Mr. Gompers' action and urged the support of the Socialist ticket. The Wisconsin Federation of Labor, the Western Federation of Miners, the Toledo Central Labor Union, the bakers, various unions of carpenters, the switchmen, the brewers, and certain unions among the coal miners have all declared for Socialism.

It is sometimes thought that the Independence party may prevent a large increase in the Socialist vote in a few cities, but it will have little effect in the purely industrial centers, and none whatever among the farmers throughout the Middle West, who are coming with a rush toward Socialism. All the speakers and organizers report unprecedented crowds in attendance at Socialist meetings. Occasionally an enthusiast predicts two million votes as a certainty, and even Victor L. Berger, who is one of the foremost of the Socialist leaders, and who as an old campaigner is careful about his statements, believes that the Socialists will poll not less than a million and a half votes.

THE PROHIBITIONISTS AND THEIR CAUSE.

BY SAMUEL DICKIE.

THE convention that on July 15 and 16 met in Memorial Hall, Columbus, Ohio, was no ordinary gathering. From every part of the country earnest men and women had journeyed to the Buckeye capital to grasp one another by the hand, to utter words of cheer, and once again to pledge allegiance in the long-drawn battle for a sober country and a better citizenship.

Of the 1200 delegates who made the hall resound with song and speech and cheer a few were freaks, for no convention is without them, but as a body the National Prohibition Convention of 1908 was made up of men and women (about 100 of the latter), patriotic, progressive, intelligent, cultured, representative. There were lawyers and doctors and preachers, bankers and manufacturers and merchants, capitalists and wage-earners, college professors and presidents, captains of industry and humble toilers at the workbench and forge, men whose wealth runs into seven figures and men who to come at all must travel second-class and to whom cabs and sleeping-cars and railway-diners and first-class hotels are forbidden luxuries.

Walter Wellman, in an admirable report in the Chicago *Record-Herald*, describes the personnel of the convention as "typical of that class of society on which the nation ever depends in a great crisis, the sort from whom all moral movements spring, the type of people whom every one instinctively trusts or calls upon for help or brave and persistent advocacy of that which they believe is right in spite of all opposition."

The convention lacked many things which the professional politician would expect to find and might deem essential. There was no boss and not even a slate. Names had been suggested for the chief honors to be given, but the men finally nominated had not even been mentioned as candidates until the balloting was about to begin. There was leadership, but no dictation. There were men of strength and influence who would have made themselves felt in any body with which they might be connected, but the spirit of real democracy so prevailed that the obscurest delegate was able to bear his part in the business of the convention.

Self-seeking and personal ambition and sordid motives were not in evidence in that company of wide-awake and sincere reformers, but the most casual observer could not fail to discover those fine moral qualities that mark the best type of American manhood.

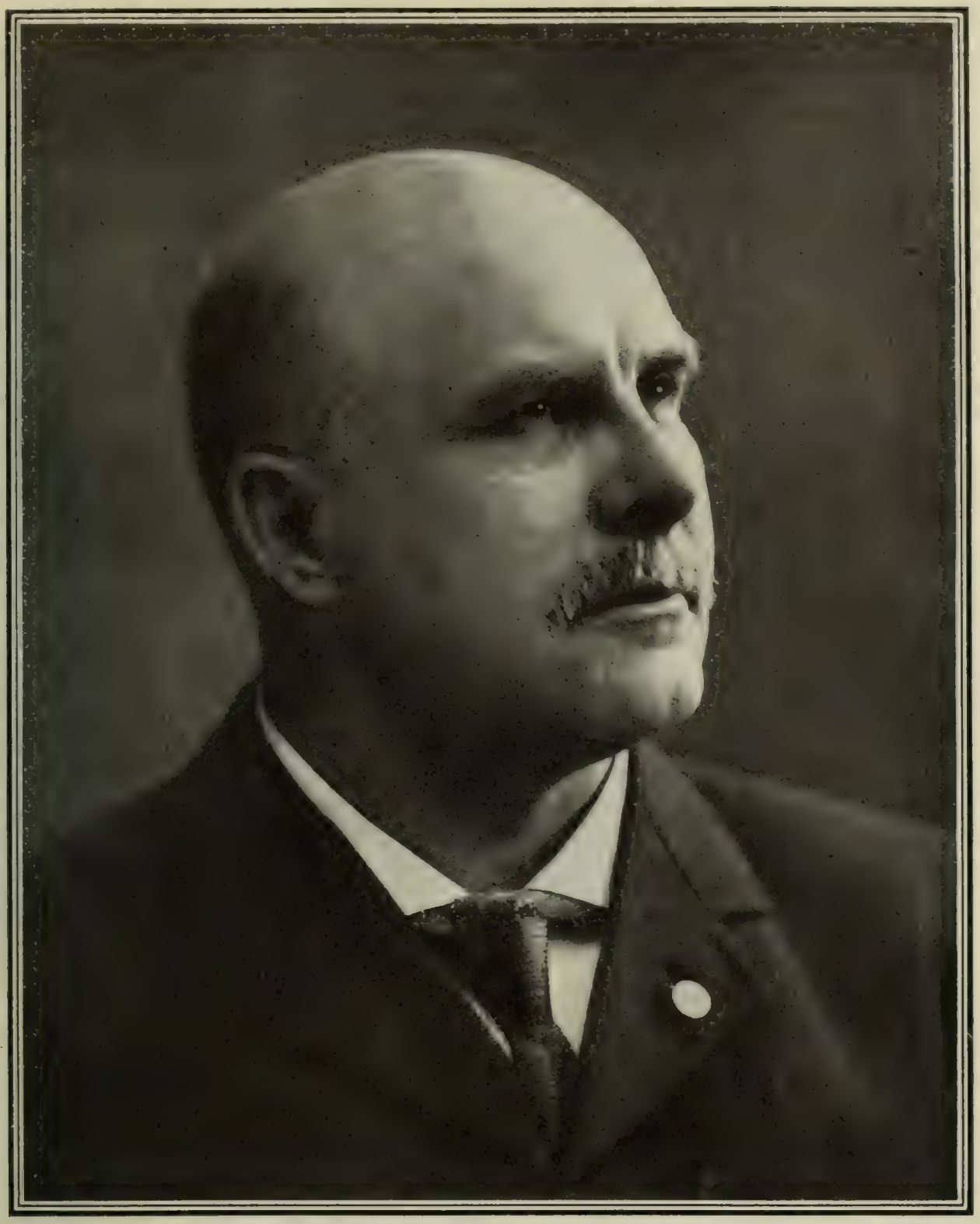
The Prohibition party of the United States, assembled in convention at Columbus, Ohio, July 15, 16, 1908, expressing gratitude to Almighty God for the victories of our principles in the past, for encouragement at present, and for confidence in early and triumphant success in the future, makes the following declaration of principles, and pledges their enactment into law when placed in power:

1. The submission by Congress to the several States of an amendment to the Federal Constitution prohibiting the manufacture, sale, importation, exportation, or transportation of alcoholic liquors for beverage purposes.
2. The immediate prohibition of the liquor traffic for beverage purposes in the District of Columbia, in the Territories, and all places over which the national Government has jurisdiction; the repeal of the internal revenue tax on alcoholic liquors, and the prohibition of interstate traffic therein.
3. The election of United States Senators by direct vote of the people.
4. Equitable graduated income and inheritance taxes.
5. The establishment of postal savings-banks and the guaranty of deposits in banks.
6. The regulation of all corporations doing an interstate commerce business.
7. The creation of a permanent tariff commission.
8. The strict enforcement of law instead of official tolerance and practical license of the social evil which prevails in many of our cities, with its unspeakable traffic in girls.
9. Uniform marriage and divorce laws.
10. An equitable and constitutional employers' liability act.
11. Court review of Post Office Department decisions.
12. The prohibition of child labor in mines, workshops, and factories.
13. Legislation basing suffrage only upon intelligence and ability to read and write the English language.
14. The preservation of the mineral and forest resources of the country, and the improvement of the highways and waterways.

Believing in the righteousness of our cause and the final triumph of our principles, and convinced of the unwillingness of the Republican and Democratic parties to deal with these issues, we invite to full party fellowship all citizens who are with us agreed.

THE SHORTEST PLATFORM OF THE CAMPAIGN.

(Adopted by the National Prohibition Convention at Columbus, Ohio, on July 16.)



EUGENE WILDER CHAFIN, OF ILLINOIS.
(The Prohibitionist candidate for President.)

Impractical some people would call them, but sincere, self-sacrificing, and patriotic even their most violent opponents will concede them to be.

And what do these reformers seek? Why do they give so liberally of their time and money and energy? Why have they surrendered the hope of political preferment in the parties large enough to handle now and then the loaves and fishes? Why are they united in a political organization that offers no immediate opportunity and small future prospect of dispensing the spoils of office?

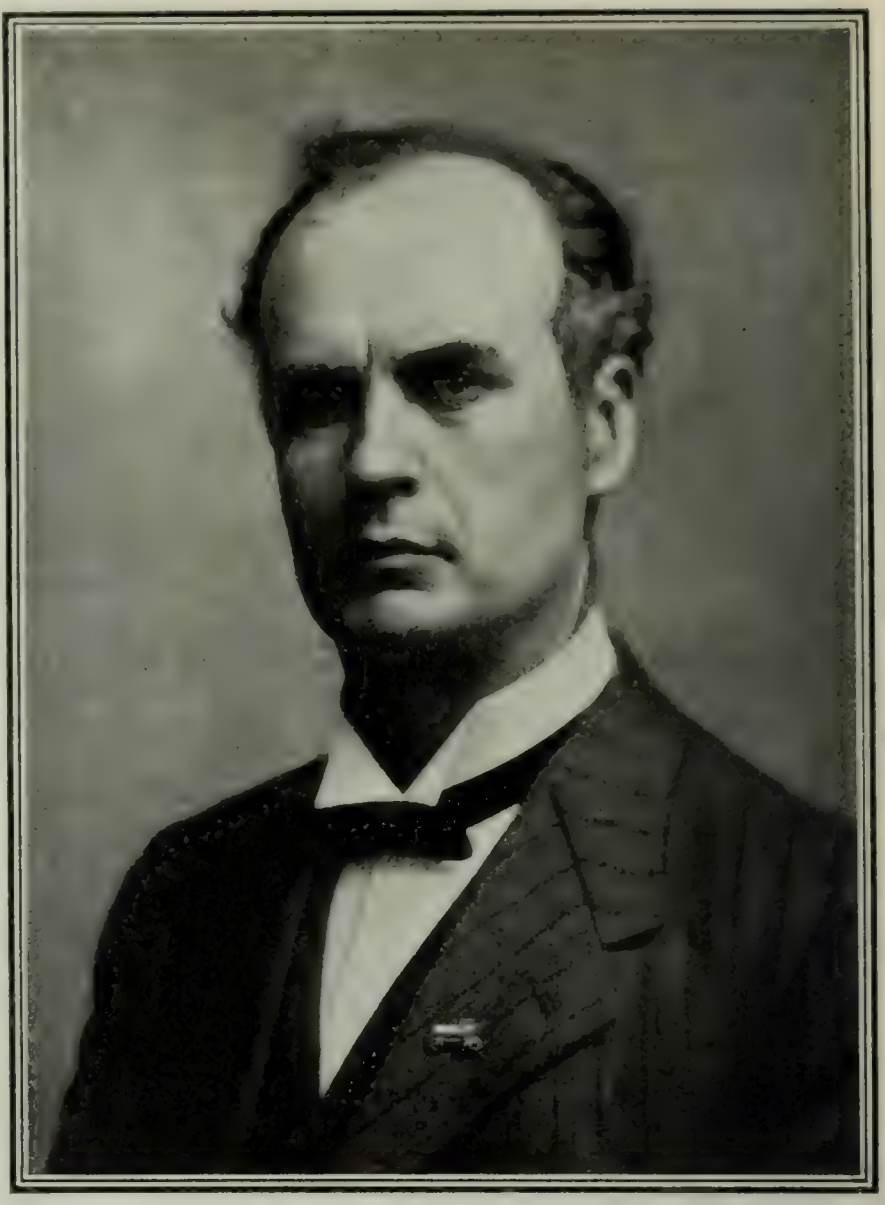
It is simply that they may unite in a protest as citizens against a legalized, expensive, debasing, and corrupting traffic.

They insist that the Government, State or national, has no right to license and should

not permit the continuance of a business that creates no wealth, that wastes our material resources, that debases and bestializes its patrons, that corrupts voters, buys legislation, pays cash for police protection, intimidates executive officers, and coolly informs ambitious politicians that there is no place at the front for the man who is indiscreet enough to be on bad terms with the saloon.

The party Prohibitionists are an uncompromising lot of folk, preferring to vote for exactly what they want, whether they can get it or not, rather than to vote for exactly what they do not want and get it right away.

The platform adopted at the Columbus convention is brief. A leading editorial in the Chicago *Record-Herald* calls it "a very model of brevity and condensation which the bigger parties might well study and copy."



AARON S. WATKINS, OF OHIO.
(The Prohibitionist candidate for Vice-President.)

THE CANDIDATES.

Eugene Wilder Chafin, Presidential nominee of the Prohibition party, was born on a farm near East Troy, Wis., November 1, 1852, and is consequently now in his fifty-sixth year. Mr. Chafin is a man in superb health, the embodiment of optimism, courage, and good nature. He is a splendid campaigner, with a fine voice, a cogent style of reasoning, and a manner upon the platform that wins both the respect and the confidence of his hearers. Like most boys born upon the farm, Mr. Chafin was obliged to work his own way, and he is indebted entirely to his own efforts for such educational advantages as he has been able to secure. He paid his way through the University of Wisconsin, graduating with the degree of Bachelor of Laws. Being admitted to the bar, he practiced his profession in his native State for something over twenty years, being located during that entire period in the city of Waukesha. Seven years ago Mr. Chafin became a citizen of Illinois and a resident of the city of Chicago. Although removing to Chicago for the purpose of continuing the practice of his profession, he soon found so many demands upon his time for platform service that he has really given the major part of his time to campaign work for the last seven years.

Mr. Chafin has for many years been a careful student of American history, and has given most studious attention to the biographies of Washington and Lincoln. Probably no man in the country is more thoroughly conversant with every important event connected with the lives of these two great men than is Mr. Chafin. He has recently published a book entitled "Lincoln: The Man of Sorrows." This book is a discriminating study of many of the most important events connected with the life of

the great emancipator. Mr. Chafin has been from boyhood a total abstainer, and is a member of the Methodist Episcopal Church.

Aaron S. Watkins, the Vice-Presidential nominee of the Prohibition party, is of Quaker antecedents and was born on a farm in Logan County, Ohio, November 29, 1863. A common-school education was supplemented by work in the Ohio Northern University and in Taylor University.

Mr. Watkins is an ordained minister and has also taken a full law course, although he has never given his attention to the practice of that profession. He is at present vice-president of the Ohio Northern University and professor of English literature in that institution. Professor Watkins is a man of energy and force, a fine speaker, and in every way admirably qualified to fill the high office for which he has been named.

WHY I AM STILL A POPULIST.

BY THOMAS E. WATSON.

(Candidate of the Populist party for the Presidency.)

I AM asked, "Why are you keeping up the Populist party? why do you personally, with your literary and editorial tasks on hand, think it worth while to take the time and labor to accept the nomination, and what are your reasons for thinking the Populist party has a right to exist and to ask the people to vote its ticket and its platform this year?"

Previous to the outbreak of the Civil War the principles of Jeffersonian-Jacksonian Democracy were dominant. As a consequence, the country was prosperous and happy. Andrew Jackson paid off the national debt; there were no funding schemes periodically robbing the taxpayers; there was not a national bank in existence; the constitutional system of money was in force, and the tariff has been reduced to a revenue basis by the Walker act of 1844.

Those were the years in which a visitor from abroad, Charles Dickens, for instance, could write home to his friends in England expressing his astonishment at the universal prosperity whose evidences were visible on every side. Those were the years in which he could use the oft-quoted expression that "a blazing sword suspended from the sky would excite no greater astonishment than would the sight of a beggar on the streets."

During the Civil War the corporations took advantage of the necessities of the Government, and special favors of all sorts were demanded and secured. The national-banking system came back again, hungrier than ever, just as Thomas H. Benton had prophesied that it would. The tariff began to go up with vast leaps and bounds. Funding schemes, in which colossal plunder was raked in by the favored financiers, took away from the people hundreds of millions of dollars. The policy of contraction was inaugurated, and before President Grant put his foot down upon it, in 1878, nearly two thousand million dollars of paper currency of the country had been destroyed.

For years after the Civil War the masses, the plain common people, were so completely under the control of the leaders of the two old political parties,—who made capital out of sectional hate and partisan bitterness,—that they had no eyes to see what the financiers were doing in Congress. At length, however, a handful of brave, true, intelligent men began to organize a protest against the monstrous class legislation which was revolutionizing our Republic and rapidly turning it into a heartless, soulless, money-made plutocracy.

These men were known as the Greenbackers. Their appeal to the common people met with a response which profoundly alarmed the leaders of the two old parties. The reform movement could not be met from the front. Its case was too strong, its argument too irresistible. But it could be flanked and sidetracked, and this was done. In the North and West, where the Greenbackers were strongest, the Republicans disarmed them by adopting the Greenback platform. In the South, wherever the movement was strong, the Democrats sidetracked it by adopting the Greenback platform. Under the specious, seductive plea of "Get your reforms inside the old party," the Greenback movement was stilettoed and put in its grave.

For a generation the beneficiaries of special privilege had it all their own way, controlling both old parties, securing just the legislation demanded. The taxes which Congress had laid upon express companies, insurance companies, railways, manufacturing establishments, bank checks, and incomes were repealed. Both the old parties cooperated to repeal them. The constitutional money system,—wherein gold, silver, and paper notes formed the currency,—which had been in operation from the foundation of the Government down to the administration of Buchanan, was overturned. To the national banks was given the power which the Constitution denied to the States. For all practical purposes they are permitted to make their own notes a legal-tender for the payment of debts,—a thing which the sovereign States of the Union dared not do. Tariff duties were carried to such monstrous extremes that foreign competition cut no figure, and the manufacturers, secure in the monopolized home market, easily organized the trusts. Railway corporations were allowed to have their way until our people were taxed for dividends upon seven billions of fictitious capitalization.

These abuses of the legislative power at length called forth another protest, and this time the movement was known as the Farmers' Alliance. The platform which the agricultural people adopted, and upon which they sought an alliance with the leaders of union labor, was practically the same in principle as that on which the old Greenbacker had made his fight. The Farmers' Alliance movement swept the West and South like a prairie fire. It buried sectionalism and wiped out party lines. Again, the two old parties found it impossible to meet the reform movement face to face, foot to foot, in a trial of strength; again the flanking, sidetracking policy was adopted. In the West, wherever the Farmers' Alliance was strong, the Republican party and leaders proclaimed their conversion to the Farmers' Alliance platform. In the Southern States, wherever the movement was strong, the Democratic party and leaders adopted the Farmers' Alliance platform. Again was heard the specious, seductive plea of "Get your reforms inside the old party." But this time the flank movement was not entirely successful. A very large element of the Farmers' Alliance movement, West and South, declared for independent political action, met in conference at Cincinnati in 1891, and put forth as their creed the platform on which the Farmers' Alliance had gone before the country.

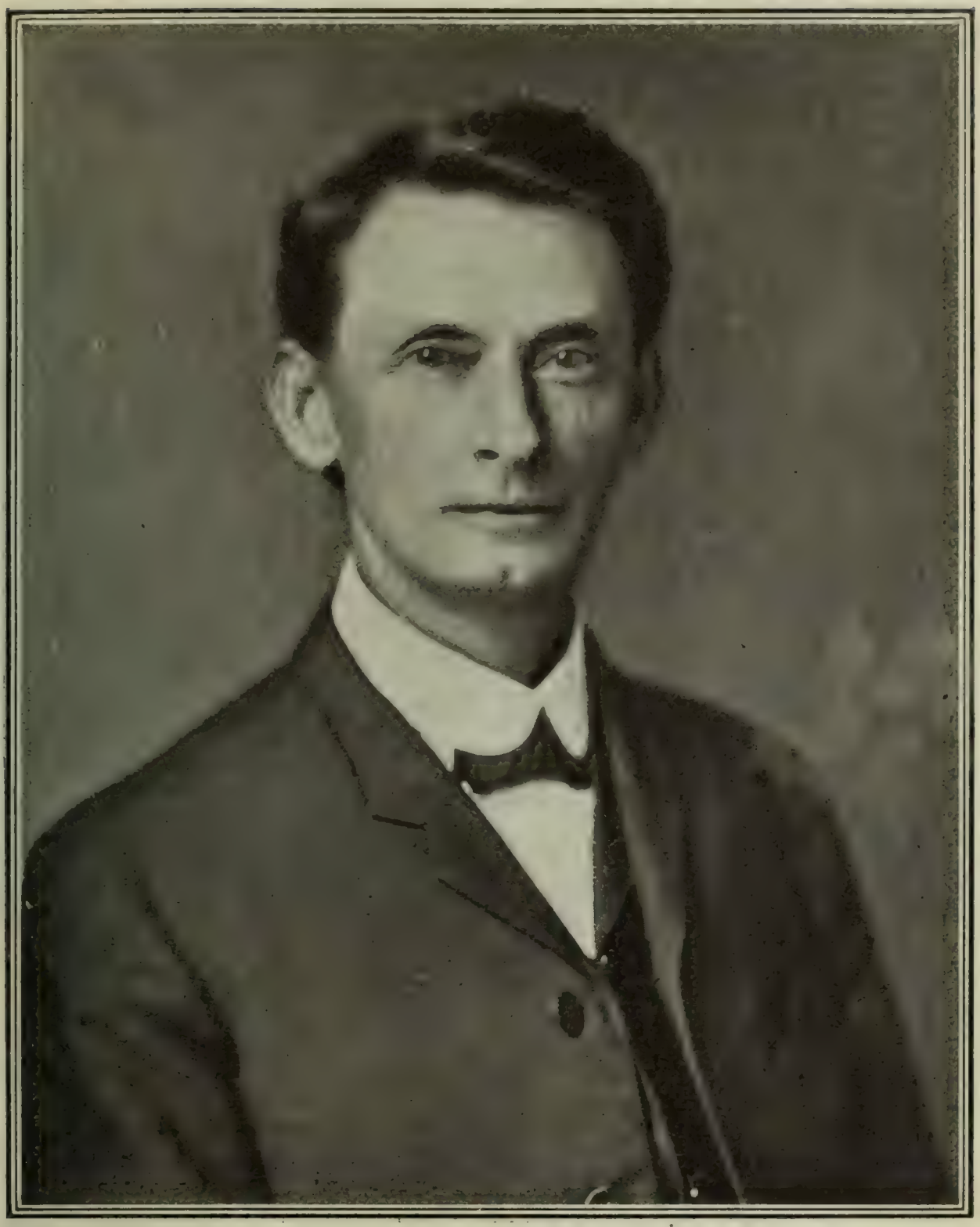
As every one knows, the first ticket which the People's party put in the field was headed by Gen. James B. Weaver, of Iowa. For him the new movement polled more than a million votes and secured respectable representation in the electoral college. There were 1800 newspapers devoted to Populist propaganda; there were several States that were in the power of Populist majorities; there was every indication that the two old parties would be at length defeated, and that a return to Democratic principles and legislation might be expected. But once more the stratagem of the politicians was more than a match in the zeal for reform.

Mr. Bryan convinced the Western leaders of Populism that he was at heart a Populist, and that it would be to the interest of Populism, as well as other reform movements, to fuse with the Democrats.

When the fusion movement of 1896 had run its course Populism was prostrate. What little life was left in it by Bryanism was taken away by the Spanish War. With one exception, the *Missouri World*, the 1800 papers of Populism died. The organization fell to pieces. As a leaven to the loaf, it was yet to exert a mighty power both in State and national affairs, but as an organized movement it had no further existence.

In the year 1900, however, an attempt was made to reorganize. A Presidential ticket headed by the Hon. Wharton Barker was put into the field. It received 50,000 votes. Bryan had been renominated by the Democrats, on a platform which committed him to the constitutional money system, and which antagonized national banks and the single gold standard.

In 1904, the Democratic party having discarded the platform upon which it had stood for eight years, and become as nearly Republican as was possible without using the same platform language which had already been used by the other party, the Populists decided that some one should make a stand for Jeffersonian Democracy. In the eight years in which Mr. Bryan had been at the front I had taken no hand in politics, for I had no confidence in the promises of the Democratic leaders, and there was no chance to do business for the Populists while Mr. Bryan was claiming to be as good a one as could be desired. When Bryan left our old platform I went upon it, determined that the country



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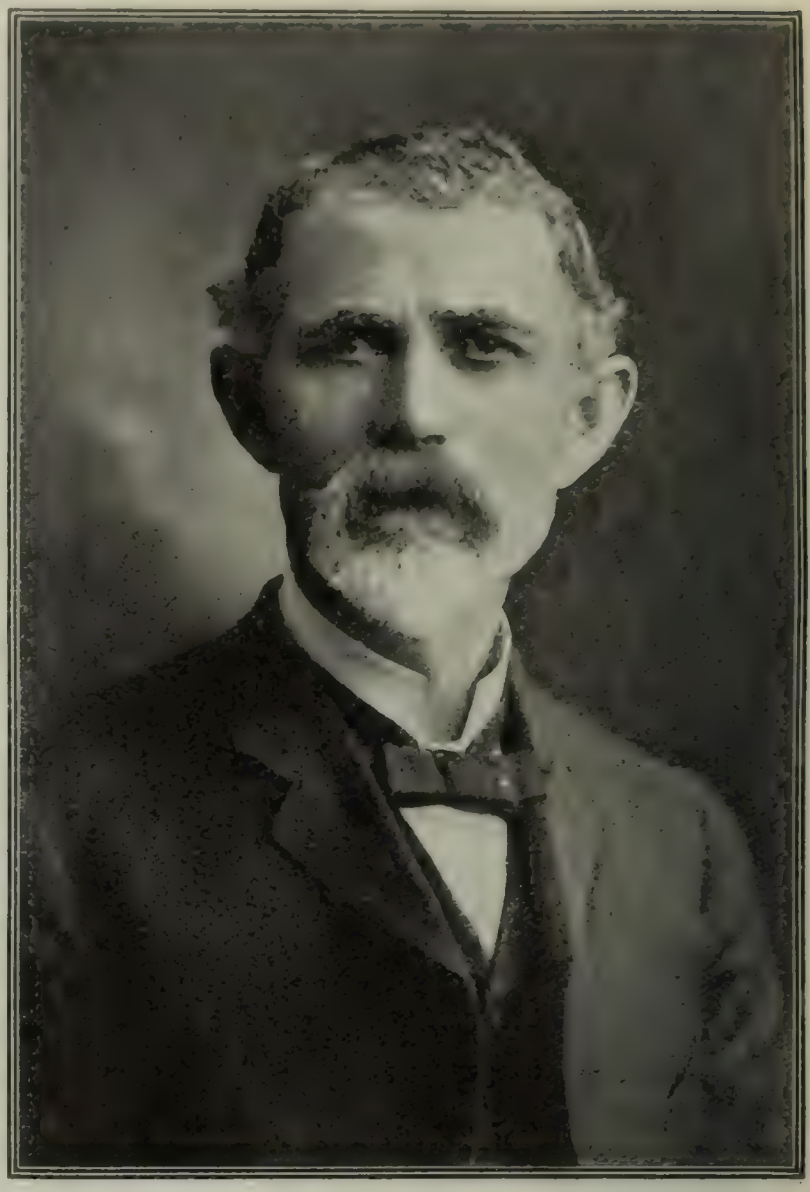
HON. THOMAS E. WATSON, OF GEORGIA.
(The Populist candidate for President.)

should at least be reminded that both the old parties were now equally Hamiltonian.

Was it not well that *some one* should voice a protest when both the old political parties went over to Special Privilege? In a land where the name of Jefferson is so often spoken with reverence, and where the word Democracy is dear to about half the people, is it not right that some one should call attention to the fact that there is no Jeffersonianism and no Jefferson Democracy in the platform of either of the old parties? Should one be deterred from doing right because those who follow him and act with him are in a hopeless minority?

It cannot be that all the voters of America approve of the platform upon which Mr. Taft is running. It must be that there is

some opposition sentiment throughout the land. Is it not a good thing for the country that there should always be an opposition? But Mr. Bryan is not in opposition. His money plank is utterly meaningless. He has ceased to antagonize national banks. He endorses the Wall Street system of finance. His declaration about the tariff carries no comfort to a Jeffersonian Democrat. He did not dare to say that he favored postal savings-banks, whereas even Mr. Taft went that far. Mr. Taft did not venture to declare himself against unlimited immigration, nor did Mr. Bryan. Both of them are catering to the labor vote, especially Mr. Bryan, and yet the question of European immigration is immensely more important to the laborers of this country than is that barren subject of injunction. Still, while Mr. Bryan knows very well how the Farmers' Union and the labor organizations have put themselves most emphatically upon record as demanding a restriction of European as well as Asiatic immigration, he does not dare to offend capitalism by going farther than to denounce *Asiatic* immigration,—this being a sop to the Pacific Coast States.



HON. SAMUEL W. WILLIAMS, OF INDIANA.
(The Populist candidate for Vice-President.)

Why do I think it necessary to keep up the Populist party?

Because if there were no party standing where we do, and eternally preaching the gospel which we proclaim, there would soon be no opposition party at all. The leaders of the two old parties would never have anything to fight about excepting the offices; American politics would be a sordid, sickening scramble between "ins" and "outs."

The Populist party will concentrate its efforts upon Georgia and endeavor to carry it this year. The propaganda will be continued during the next four years so that other States may fall into line. The labor of the Southern people since the days of reconstruction has been to overcome the political influence of the negro. Bryan's attempt to Africanize the so-called Democratic party is bringing about the very worst possible danger to the South as well as to the entire United States.

The campaign of the Populists is quiet, sustained, and, while comparatively few Southern papers have as yet fallen into line, there is no question that the sentiment is imperative for a Jeffersonian Democracy. The near future will see a sweeping political change.

Profoundly believing that our country will never be generally prosperous and generally happy again until we return to old landmarks and put into operation the principles of Jeffersonian Democracy once more, I shall continue while I live to "hew to the line," leaving the ultimate results to the Power that rules the world.



THOMAS L. HISGEN, OF MASSACHUSETTS, THE INDEPENDENCE PARTY'S CANDIDATE FOR PRESIDENT.

(Mr. Hisgen, with his brothers, built up a successful axle-grease business at Albany, N. Y., and West Springfield, Mass. Last year Thomas L. Hisgen was candidate for Governor of Massachusetts.)

THE MISSION OF THE INDEPENDENCE PARTY.

BY JOHN TEMPLE GRAVES.

(The party's candidate for Vice-President.)

THE Independence party, whose national candidates will ask the suffrages of the people in November, is neither an accident nor an experiment. The party rises naturally and logically out of the conditions and necessities of the present era. As it stands unfolded by its first convention, just held in Chicago, it is the organization of the real protesting forces of reform which have been at work for a dozen years in American politics, and which have had more or less effect upon the platform and principles of the older parties.

The last decade of American politics has been illustrated by a consecutive, definite, and increasingly coherent protest of the people

and their champions against the graft and greed of corporations; against the corruption of parties by money; against the increasing arrogance and tyranny of corporations in their relations to the people, and against the general enthronement of spoils and privilege above the people's rights and liberties.

Ten years ago, or twelve years ago, when this reform agitation was begun, the men who led it were denounced as revolutionists and anarchists, dangerous to society and menacing to government. Steadily, persistently the formative forces, now crystallized in the Independence party, persisted in their way of protest, thundered their exposures of public wrongs and their demand for righting by government and law, until to-day both parties and the entire Republic have come to recognize as natural and necessary the demands which were born pure and simple in the propaganda started and maintained by the Independence leaders and the Independence newspapers of that earlier day.

That other men of other parties have joined in this movement from time to time and given strong assistance is not denied.

That other leaders have lent their voices to the progress of reform with more or less of force and potency is freely conceded here.

But the Independence party claims, without fear of contradiction, that the spirit which has exposed public wrongs, denounced public evils, made evident the outrages upon liberty and property, and has finally aroused public opinion out of shameful apathy to action and to accomplishment, is due primarily and transcendently to the persistent, unfailing, unfearing agitation for civic righteousness and civic liberty instituted by the Independent series of newspapers twelve years ago, and maintained without a variation or shadow of turning by these great evangels of publicity through an unbroken and educative system of years.

When the passions and the prejudices of the time have faded, and the fair history of this great corrective movement is written, these are the forces which must be reckoned the creative and compelling agencies of the era of reform in which we live.

So that the Independence party grows naturally and logically out of a reform spirit which itself created and sustained, and in this year of grace 1908 it simply organizes its own achievements and its own principles in order to ask a national vindication and a national reward for the transcendent service that it has rendered the country.

The grandfather of the present Independence party was the Municipal Ownership League, which in New York, in Chicago, in San Francisco, and in other cities has won so wonderfully upon the confidence and support of the people in their own interest and behalf.

The Independence party is a direct descendant of the Independence League, which in New York, in Massachusetts, in California, and in Illinois has fought such splendid battles and won such splendid victories for the people.

The whole genius of the Independence party is concentrated upon the principle of going out to fight for reforms that are not only desirable but accomplishable. From its municipal beginning, through its State-wide effort, to its present national form, it has never troubled for a moment to advocate things that were merely fanciful or theoretical, but has been the advocate of things that could be done.

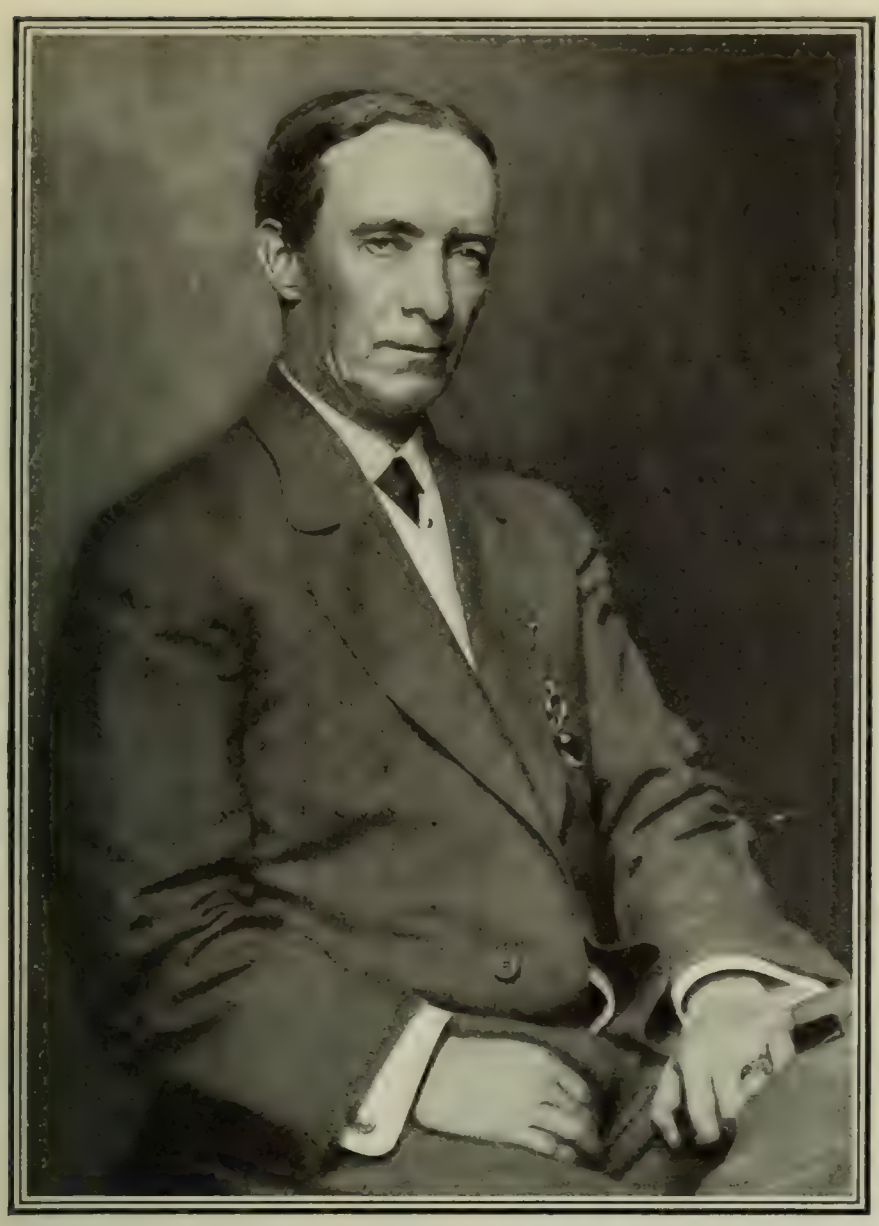
It is urged against the Independence party by the Democrats that its national campaign is one of spite inspired by Mr. Hearst to punish Mr. Bryan for his disloyalty to Mr. Hearst in the Presidential campaign of 1904. The plea is captious and absolutely untrue.

In the two preceding Bryan campaigns Hearst had given to Bryan unstintedly the support of his great series of newspapers, of his personal time and energy and his superb powers of organization, and in more than royal generosity of his money. No other friend gave half so much. And yet the only opportunity on earth that Bryan ever had to pay the debt in small part was at St. Louis in 1904, and he turned his back upon this incomparable friend and went out of his way to nominate ex-Senator Cockrell, who was merely a local candidate without even a following for the Presidency.

It is difficult to see how any man who could be disloyal to such a friend under such circumstances could ever be true to any man or any party under any circumstances.

But this foolish plea is based upon an utter misconception of Mr. Hearst's motives and methods. It is the public policy and the people's good that moves his great energies. He has forgotten Bryan's disloyalty and forgiven it long ago.

The Independence party is born now at this particular time and under these circumstances as a distinct articulation of the universal demand for a new party in American politics. Within the limits of this brief com-



JOHN TEMPLE GRAVES, OF GEORGIA.
(Candidate of the Independence party for Vice-President.)

ment it is not necessary to argue this proposition, which proves itself in the mind and conscience of the American voter. I submit to the conscience and to the integrity of the intelligent people of America that there is a distinct and deep-seated, even if unexpressed, demand for a reorganization of parties and a readjustment of political relations. In the heart of both parties this demand exists, and is secretly if not openly confessed by the leaders and by the thinking element. The divisions in both the old parties is an evidence that it is impossible for even their blanket platforms any longer to carry the convictions of the men who have so long made up the organization. The divisions in the Democratic party are irreconcilable and hopeless. There has not been for ten years, within the lines of honesty, any possible compromise between a Bryan and a Belmont or a Ryan and a Hearst; and yet campaign after campaign the platform tinkerers of the old moribund organization have sought to beat out their waning interests into a declaration that would cover and hold these irrepressible elements of discord. The platforms of the Democratic party for twelve years have been a succession of shameful hypocrisies and of deceitful compromises, in which men presumably honest have endeavored to maintain a loyalty which they neither felt nor fulfilled. As a consequence the Democratic party has literally wallowed in the mire of inconsistency, nominating first a conservative, then a radical, then again a radical, then again a conservative, then again a radical,—shifting from pillar to post in shameless opportunism, and in 1904 violating all its traditions and insulting all its history by nominating a candidate upon the open and shameful plea that "he was not offensive to the criminal trusts."

It is against not only the shameless inconsistency, but the absolutely hopeless division and ineffectiveness, of the Democratic party that the Independence party of to-day is formed.

It is equally true that the Republican party has lost its moorings. Divided in its principles and split up in its policies, it is drifting as hopelessly as its rival organization amid the alternate currents of spoils and privilege, of corporate greed and corruption, and of spasmodic reforms led by a single individual, who has pitted an honest effort against the evil and hopeless drift of an organization whose day is ended.

The cry of the times is for the square deal. But the Independence party answers, There is no square deal without a new deal.

REAL NAVIGATION OF THE AIR.

BY GEORGE H. GUY.

THERE never was a time in the history of aeronautics when developments in the art were so quickening to early fruition as to-day. This promise of realization is especially apparent in the fields of dirigible balloons and of aeroplanes.

The air balloon has always been associated in the public mind with the idea of a passenger-carrying craft of the air. Zeppelin gave it length and great size, making it into a steerable ship. A balloon of the large dimensions of his designs needs a rigid structure, or frame, whereby its shape can be preserved under all conditions, and especially when it is being driven rapidly through the air. Zeppelin saw that such a frame should be rather a part of the balloon itself, than be suspended below it, and so retard its propulsion. This frame he supported in the air by a number of small balloons carried in the "hold" of the airship, and he thus gave these balloons, or gas balloonets, as they are called, protection from the sun's radiation and other influences. Underneath the elongated aerial hull he attached two large watertight aluminum cars, containing the motors, steering, and other apparatus, connected by a long passageway with cabins in the center. From these cabins ascended a flight of stairs through the body of the ship to a small platform on its upper side, which gave an unobstructed view of the sky for astronomical or other observations.

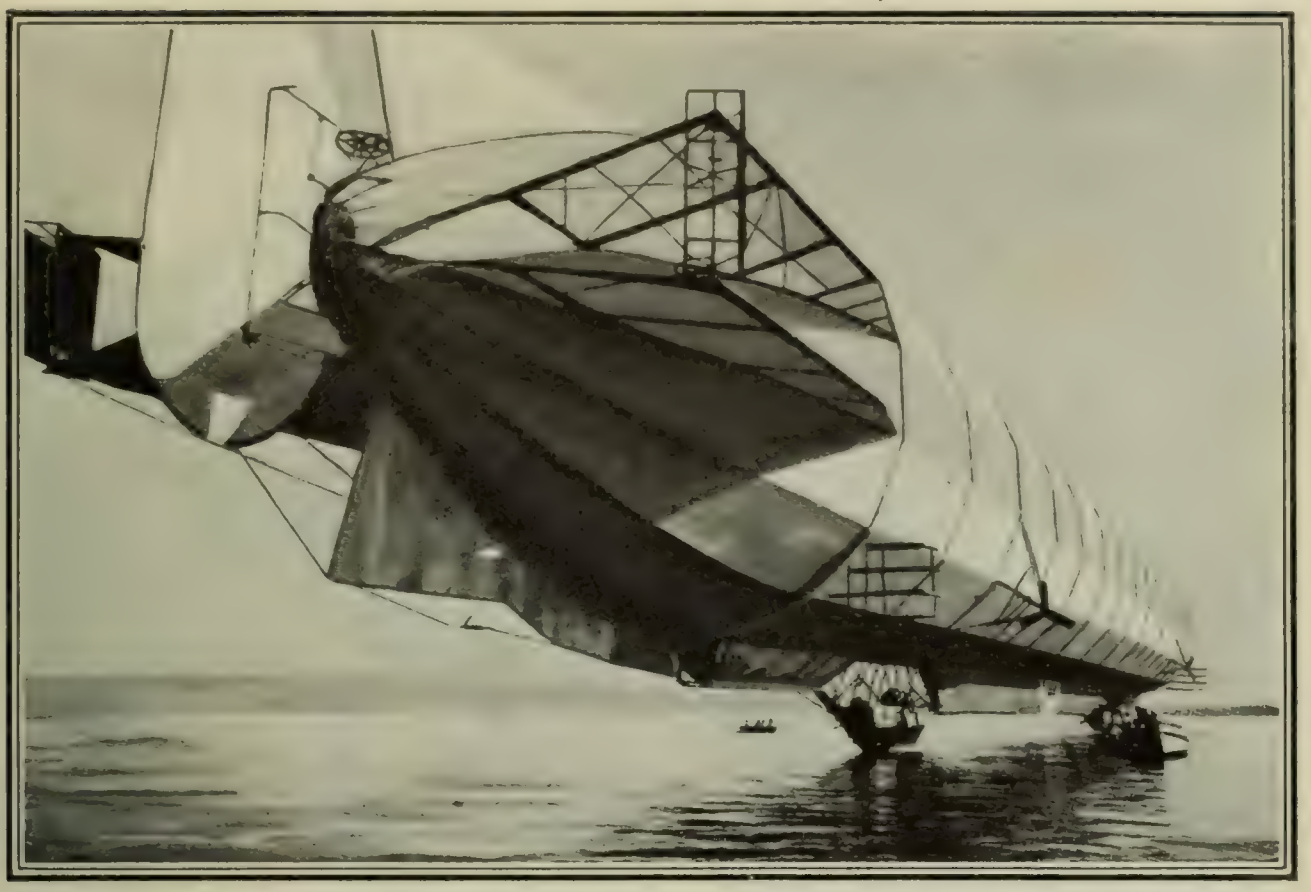
ZEPPELIN'S ACHIEVEMENTS.

In the fourth ship named after him Zeppelin embodied the improvements suggested by his construction of three consecutive ships of this type. He was about to demonstrate by its agency that a commercially useful means of air transportation had at last been attained, when it came to its untimely end



ONE OF THE NEWER TYPES OF FRENCH AEROPLANES.

(M. Bleriot seated in his latest monoplane.)



COUNT ZEPPELIN'S "NUMBER FOUR," WHICH LAST MONTH FOCUSSED THE WORLD'S ATTENTION.

(After a remarkable flight from Lake Constance, along the Rhine valley, to Strasburg, and thence to Mainz and Stuttgart, at a speed of thirty-five miles an hour, and at heights varying from 300 to 3000 feet, the great dirigible descended for repairs at Echterdingen, on August 5, having covered a distance of over 300 miles in about twenty hours. During a thunder shower one of the balloons was burst by beating against the ground, the gas took fire, and almost in an instant the whole costly machine was a wreck. The German people at once subscribed $400,000 to build a new airship.)

at Echterdingen, partly through inexperience in handling it,—in the air as well as on the ground,—and partly from the weak points of inadequately tried machinery. The ship measured 435 feet, with a diameter of forty-three feet at its greatest width. She could carry twenty-five passengers. The direction of travel was controlled by a series of planes, and the ship had four propellers, driven by two 110-horsepower motors. In her last trip, in which she sought to secure the prize of $500,000 offered by the German Government for the ship remaining in the air for twenty-four hours, she had already been out twenty hours, and had traveled a distance of 335 miles.

Zeppelin has, however, demonstrated that the power-propelled balloon will eventually equal in speed practically any other vehicle man has ever employed for useful locomotion. This splendid result was largely due to his laborious and ingenious working out of improved methods of propelling, steering, and stabilizing. In this connection it is interesting to recall the opinion of the well-known inventor, Peter Cooper Hewitt, who in a recent conversation with the writer on the practical value of the dirigible of the future, said: "Size for size and per ton mile, at the same speed, the cost for power of transportation by balloon should be about one-eighth the cost of transportation by boat, the boat having the same tonnage and the same speed as the balloon. This would mean that the speed in air for the same power, other things being equal, would be double that in water."

ANOTHER GERMAN MODEL.

Of a widely different type from the *Zeppelin,* though greatly elongated, is the German airship of Major von Parseval. This type resembles the ordinary balloon, with the basket hung far below, and substituting for the frame a very ingenious method of automatically rectifying the pitching of the car. It can descend as safely as the ordinary balloon, and be handled on the ground with as great ease. It can be packed on three regulation army wagons, operated from any part



Photograph by the Pictorial News Co., N. Y.

THE FIRST AMERICAN WAR BALLOON.

(Captain Baldwin's dirigible, tested in August by the Government at Fort Myer.)

of a battlefield, and even in its largest sizes, stowed away on board a battleship, and inflated at sea ready for an inland raid. It has, however, the most serious drawback of lacking any protection of its gas from weather conditions. Major von Parseval has succeeded in navigating the ship over long distances, at a speed of twenty-five miles an hour.

DEVELOPMENTS IN OTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES.

The French developed an airship of high practical merit even earlier than the Germans, some of their ships showing considerable speed, endurance, and steadiness. It has been questioned, however, whether the type adopted by this nation will endure, for while it possesses some of the principles incorporated both in the *Zeppelin* and the *Parseval,* it has many of the disadvantages of both. The first typical French ship was the wonderful *Lebaudy,* which was also the first example of a thoroughly efficient dirigible. Its brilliant present representative is *La Republique,* whose forerunner, *La Patrie,* was unfortunately lost through inexperience in handling. The characteristics of this type, as shown in its latest example, are a partial stiffening of the balloon itself by a rigid flat bottom, and a method of counteracting the effect of the low position of the car and of its low center of propulsion by the employment of an elaborate system of planes that give flexibility of steering and great stability to the ship.

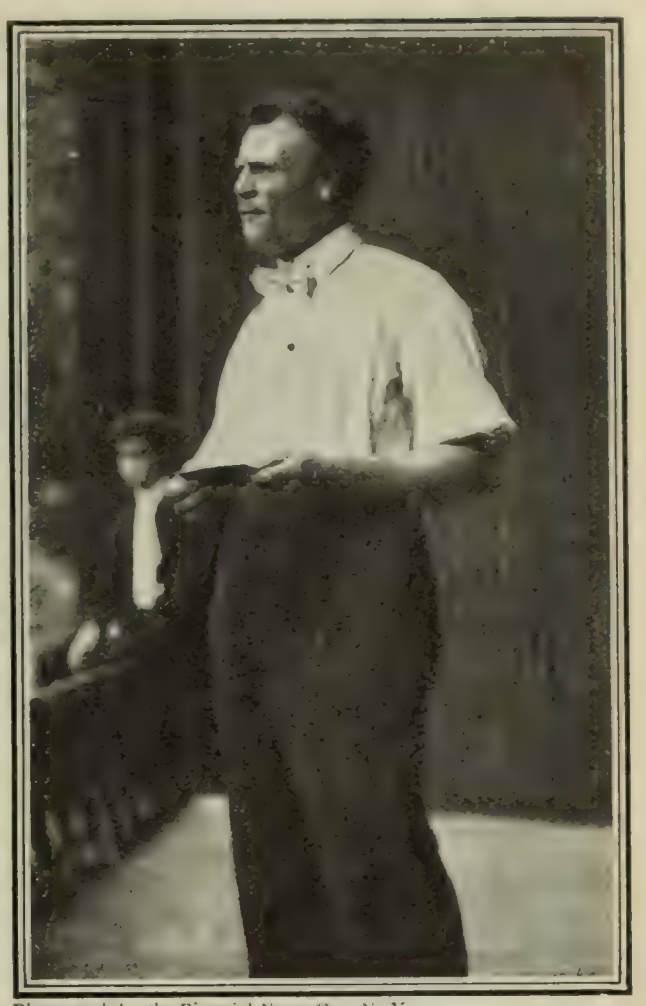
One of the French war balloons, *La Ville de Paris,* while not differing in principle from *La Republique,* has its frame suspended below the gas-bag, and it is steadied by gas-inflated appendages, which form part of the envelope itself.

England promises soon to be abreast of Germany and France, with a representative of a type which is in principle identical with *La Republique.* It is interesting to note that even the Germans, in addition to developing their own types, are experimenting on similar lines. Europe shows already quite a fleet of dirigibles, there being in Germany

six, in France three, and in England one. Many other nations, among which are Italy, Switzerland, Spain, Belgium, and Russia, have airships under construction.

AMERICAN DIRIGIBLES.—CAPTAIN BALDWIN.

The foremost name connected with dirigible work in this country is that of Captain Thomas S. Baldwin, who has recently met successfully the conditions of the test established by the Government. The balloon had to have a speed of twenty miles an hour in still air, to be designed to carry two passengers having a combined weight of 350 pounds, and be capable of carrying in addition 100 pounds of ballast, to compensate for the increased weight when operating in rain. The gas-bag of Captain Baldwin's balloon is eighty-four feet in length, with a maximum diameter of eighteen feet and a minimum diameter of sixteen feet, and a capacity of 18,000 cubic feet. The frame is sixty-six feet long. The twelve-foot propeller, placed on the forward end of the frame, has a speed of 450 revolutions per minute. The distinctive feature in the provision for the handling of the ship is a number of box-kite planes near the forward end, operated by the aviator for lowering or raising the ship, and keeping it on an even keel all the time. The



Photograph by the Pictorial News Co., N. Y.

CAPTAIN THOMAS S. BALDWIN.



Photograph by the Pictorial News Co., N. Y.

GLENN H. CURTISS ADJUSTING THE PROPELLER-BLADE OF THE BALDWIN DIRIGIBLE.

ship is driven by a twenty-horsepower Curtiss engine. The type of this airship is distinctly American. While in some features it strongly suggests that of Santos Dumont, it is just what a ship would be which embodied all the points of the *Zeppelin* on a very small scale. For instance, the frame is almost as long as the gas-bag, and is attached closely to it by means of a fine strong netting. The operators are carried in two cars, and the plan of vertical steering is identical. Moreover, the shape of the hull of the *Baldwin* greatly resembles that of its enormous prototype.

Those who know Captain Baldwin as a man as well as an aeronaut never had the slightest doubt that he would fulfill the re-



WALTER WELLMAN'S "AMERICA." DESIGNED FOR ARCTIC EXPLORATION.

quirements of the Government tests. His intuition in dealing with scientific problems is remarkable, and he has all the qualities which go to the making of the unerring aeronaut, with an experience absolutely unique. He knows every foot of the way he is treading. He has made 3000 ascensions, and he has never received a scratch. He may rush up into the air at all sorts of speeds, but in descending, one of the great tests of the aeronaut, he settles down to the earth like a lark dropping into a meadow.

WELLMAN'S "AMERICA."

Walter Wellman, who proposes to go to the North Pole in his dirigible, the *American,* said, when relating to the writer the plans for his momentous voyage:

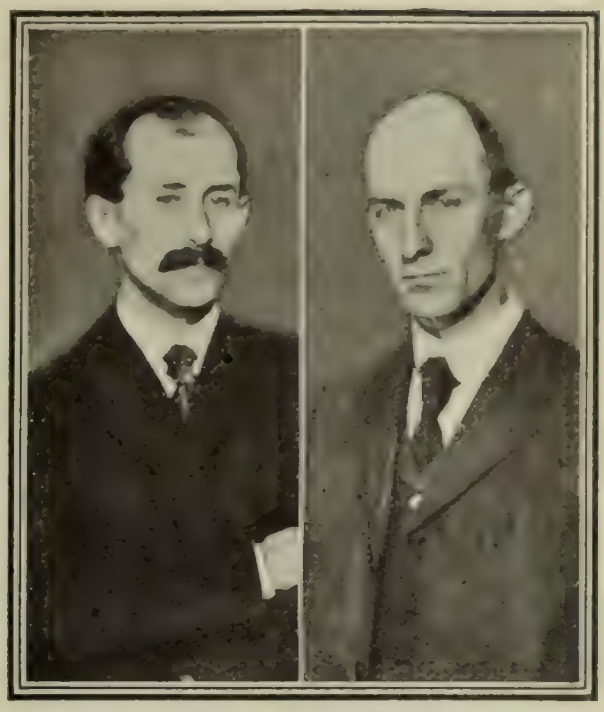
In designing our ship we followed the French type, maintaining the rigidity of the form by means of interior pressure, and balloonets. These balloonets are filled, when occasion requires, by a small five-horsepower motor, driving a ventilator or air-blower. This type enables us to build a machine of reasonable dimensions, getting a very large ascensional force over that of the machine itself, to be devoted to the fuel for the engine, provisions, instruments, and all the necessary equipment for a long voyage. I have always thought that there is great advantage in the French type after landing, because of the lesser surface presented to the force of the wind. A ship of the French type would enable us, on a storm coming up, to quickly deflate the gas-bag, and the possible damage in such case would be small. We designed the ship not for high speed, but for endurance on a long voyage. The distance from our base at Spitzbergen to the Pole is 700 statute miles. I wanted a ship that had a radius of action of at least three times that distance, so that in planning for the round trip of 1400 miles we might have 700 miles of margin for an emergency. To go in for high speed would mean, of course, greater use of fuel,—the higher the speed the greater the consumption of fuel per mile traveled. After careful analysis of all the wind conditions, and all the other factors of the problem, I came to the conclusion that a speed of seventeen or eighteen statute miles per hour was the best for our purpose; so we built the ship not for beating the record for speed, but for beating the record for distance traveled in a single voyage.

The ship was tried last summer at the base of Spitzbergen. The season was exceptionally unfavorable in respect of high winds. In the trial she went about twenty miles under her own power, and although we used the guide-rope system of vertical control,—the rope trailing in the water like a great sea serpent,—which makes the steering of the ship a great deal more difficult, we made three turns of the helm, two to port, and one to starboard; so we know that the ship is absolutely dirigible. It is true that since she was brought back to Paris, where she was built by Vanniman, we have enlarged the rudder, strengthened her steering devices, and made other changes. As she stands to-day, we think she has a fair chance to achieve the very difficult task for which she has been constructed. The meteorological conditions for aeronautics are very much better in the Arctic regions, on the whole, than they are here, from the fact that here we have alternating day and night, high temperature at noon and in the afternoon, and low temperature after midnight and in the early morning. Such variations in temperature greatly exhaust the vitality of any aerostat. In the Arctic regions we have the least variable temperature of any part of the world. A striking peculiarity of the guide-rope of the *America* is that it consists of a leather tube, six inches in diameter, which is used as a storage for reserve food. A

certain weight was necessary to control the vertical movement of the ship, and instead of it having to carry 1400 pounds of useless material, fully 75 per cent. of that weight was taken care of by this ingenious arrangement. The length of the ship is 184 feet, with a maximum diameter of fifty-four feet. Its main engine is an 80 horsepower eight-cylinder Antoinette.

THE AEROPLANE, FROM LILIENTHAL TO THE WRIGHTS.

In coming to the discussion of the aeroplane one inevitably reverts to the work of its great originator, Lilienthal, who, after exhaustive study and experimentation with specially designed apparatus on models of the wings of birds, was the first man to fly with large wing-like surfaces through the air. It is curious that one great drawback of the period at which he began his experiments should prove, in the end, a blessing in disguise. There was no light motor then in existence, and he was compelled to use his flying machine as a mere aerial coaster, or, as it was later called, a gliding machine. With only gravity as a propelling force, he soon discovered that he would derive but poor support from calm air. He, therefore, began early to glide in the wind, meeting the formidable difficulties in balancing thus encountered by gradual and systematic practice. He developed a skill in throwing his weight instantly toward the side which happened to be raised by a sudden wind gust that was truly marvelous.



Orville Wright. Wilbur Wright.

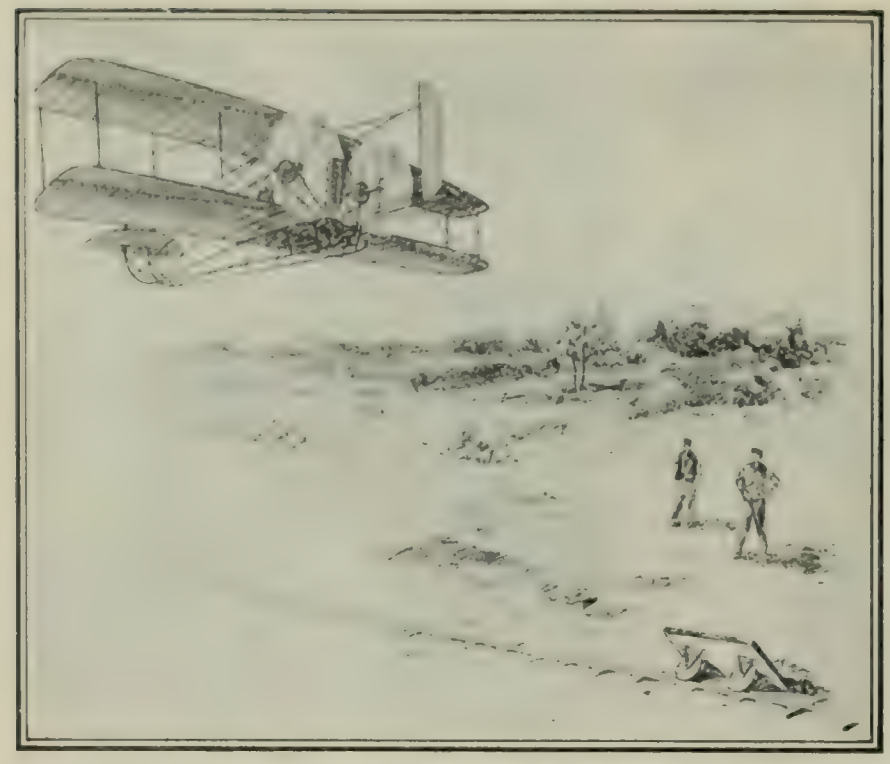
THE WRIGHT BROTHERS, OF DAYTON, OHIO.

(Whose experimental flights in France, last month, amazed the world.)

By courtesy of Prof. R. W. Wood, of Johns Hopkins University, a most interesting photograph of Lilienthal, gliding in his double-decked machine, is here given. The picture was taken three days before the machine fell to the ground and killed its inventor. Professor Wood, who was intimately acquainted with Lilienthal, made some short glides with this machine the last time he was out with his friend. He says: "It struck me as being very unstable (in my hands), though Lilienthal managed it with great skill, rushing along at race-horse speed, sixty or seventy feet in the air, the wind playing aeolian harp music on the steel piano wires with which the framework was trussed. What impressed me most was the tremendous amount of athletic work necessary to balance the machine. He was never still a moment, swinging his legs from side to side, and on landing he was all out of breath, though I doubt if he was in the air over thirty seconds. It seemed to require as much exercise as a 100-yard dash."



THE LAST PHOTOGRAPH TAKEN OF HERR LILIENTHAL AND HIS DOUBLE-DECKED GLIDING MACHINE.



THE WRIGHT BROTHERS' MACHINE.
(From a drawing by Carl Dienstbach.)

After Lilienthal, but working on independent lines, came Prof. S. P. Langley, whose potent influence in aeronautics has been fully recognized, and his able assistant, Charles M. Manly, and in England Sir Hiram Maxim. Prominent among Manly's achievements is the production of the first, and so far the only, light-weight, high-powered motor which could stand the test of a continuous run of ten hours, and of a system of automatically balancing the largest and heaviest unmanned model flying machines ever built.

A most distinguished emulator of Lilienthal was an American engineer, A. M. Herring, who was gifted with a wonderful skill in designing intricate and ingenious mechanical devices. He was thus enabled to learn much about wind support and balancing, and many of his small scale models actually flew. He promptly improved on Lilienthal's machine, changing entirely the design, and providing the glider with wonderful mechanisms, which, when properly adjusted, would perform most of Lilienthal's acrobatic feats automatically. To one of these machines he later applied stored power, in the shape of compressed air. Applying this to two large wooden screw propellers, he was able to fly horizontally, instead of coasting downward, for the short time his power would last. From that time his work has been more or less shrouded in mystery, but it is still of such a character as to make him the real "dark horse" in the present race for aerial supremacy. Mr. Herring's machine is one of the entries in the coming Government tests of an aeroplane designed to carry two persons, having a combined weight of 350 pounds, and sufficient fuel for a flight of 125 miles. The machine must have a speed of forty miles an hour in still air, and an average minimum speed of thirty-six miles an hour against and with the wind. Another machine entered for these tests is that of Orville and Wilbur Wright, of Dayton, Ohio.

These brothers were also notable exponents of Lilienthal methods. Although they knew of some of Herring's improvements on Lilienthal's glider, and imitated him in the general design of their machine, they worked out their own salvation in the evolution of means of controlling the glider by bodily skill. Their method required infinitely less effort than Lilienthal's, while allowing of a far greater rapidity of action. They could also control very large machines just as effectively as smaller ones, a feat which Lilienthal had been unable to accomplish. Although the Wright Brothers have only just begun to make public flights, they have already demonstrated their immense superiority in steering and in certainty and safety of flight. Their recent achievements in Europe and in this country have not only removed the atmosphere of doubt by which the doings of these secretive brothers were surrounded, but have made the aeronautic world stand in amazement. The wonder of their actual accomplishment is not greater than that of the bewildering possibilities which are now brought almost within reach.

One cannot but notice that in the talks of the Wright Brothers on flying they seem to ignore the dangers of aeroplane practice, and speak only of its fascinations. To one who feels no fear as the propeller starts with a terrific roar, and the great bird-like frame throbs and surges, waiting only for a touch of the front rudder to spring into the air,

there is in flying a zest unequaled in any other form of locomotion. The Wrights have described in glowing language the ecstasy of the sensations of the operator as the machine mounts higher and he becomes more insensible to the movement through the air, rising or falling at will, turning to the right or the left at the pressure of a lever, stopping the motor high in the air when near his destination, and letting the machine drift obliquely to the earth and come to rest so gradually that he does not know the actual moment he touches the ground.

After these radical advances, it was not long before people in Europe began to put their light motors on artificial wings or aeroplanes. They soon found that almost anything with a large surface could be made to rise in the air by a powerful light motor. Among the names of those who took part in this evolutionary movement may be mentioned Santos Dumont, Vuia, Bleriot, Delagrange, Ferber, and Archdeacon.

FARMAN'S CONTRIBUTION.

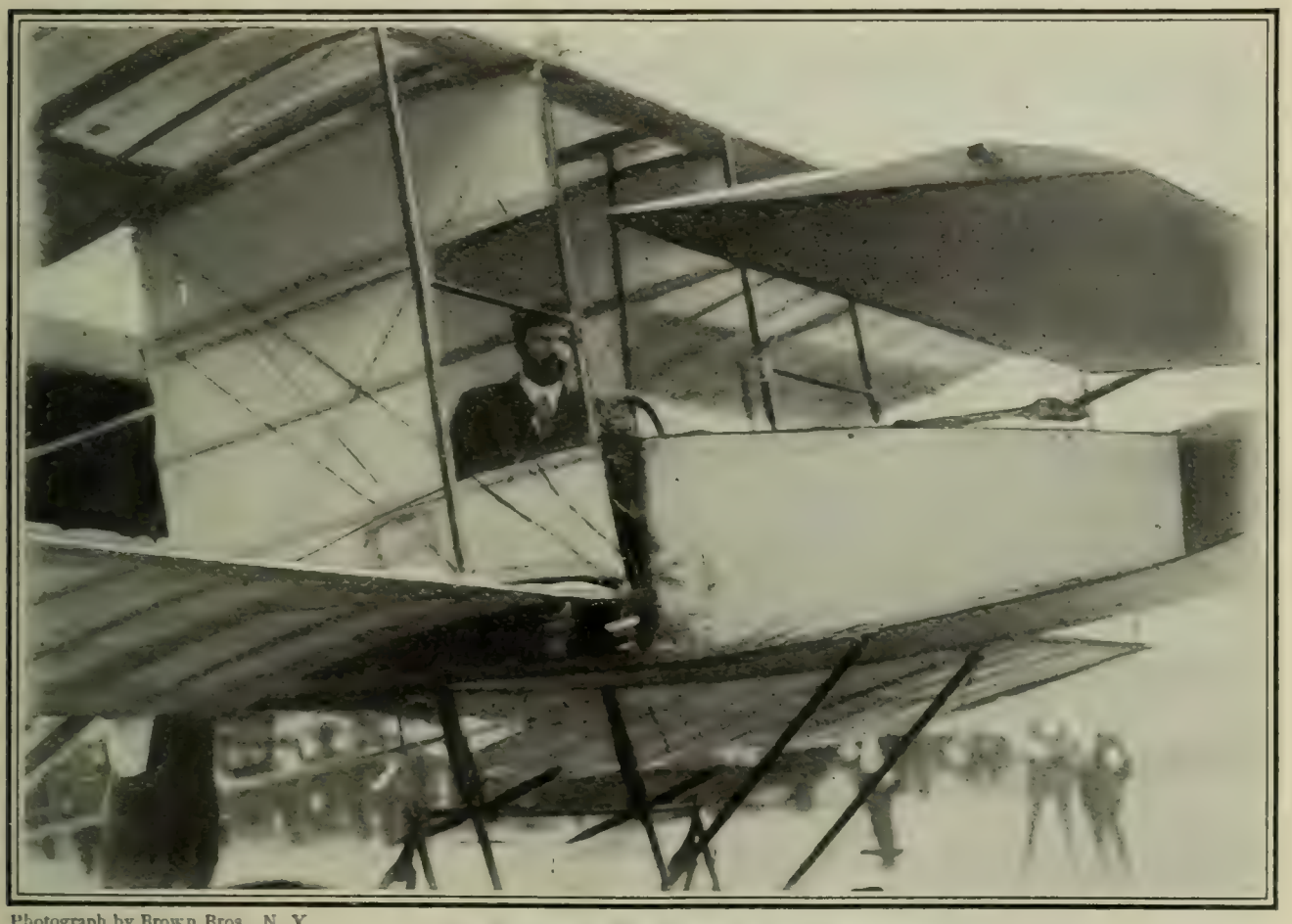
It was Henry Farman who, aided by his experience as a driver of racing automobiles, succeeded first in making extended flights



Photograph by Brown Bros., N. Y.

HENRY FARMAN.

(Who gave American exhibitions last month.)



Photograph by Brown Bros., N. Y.

MR. FARMAN IN HIS AEROPLANE.

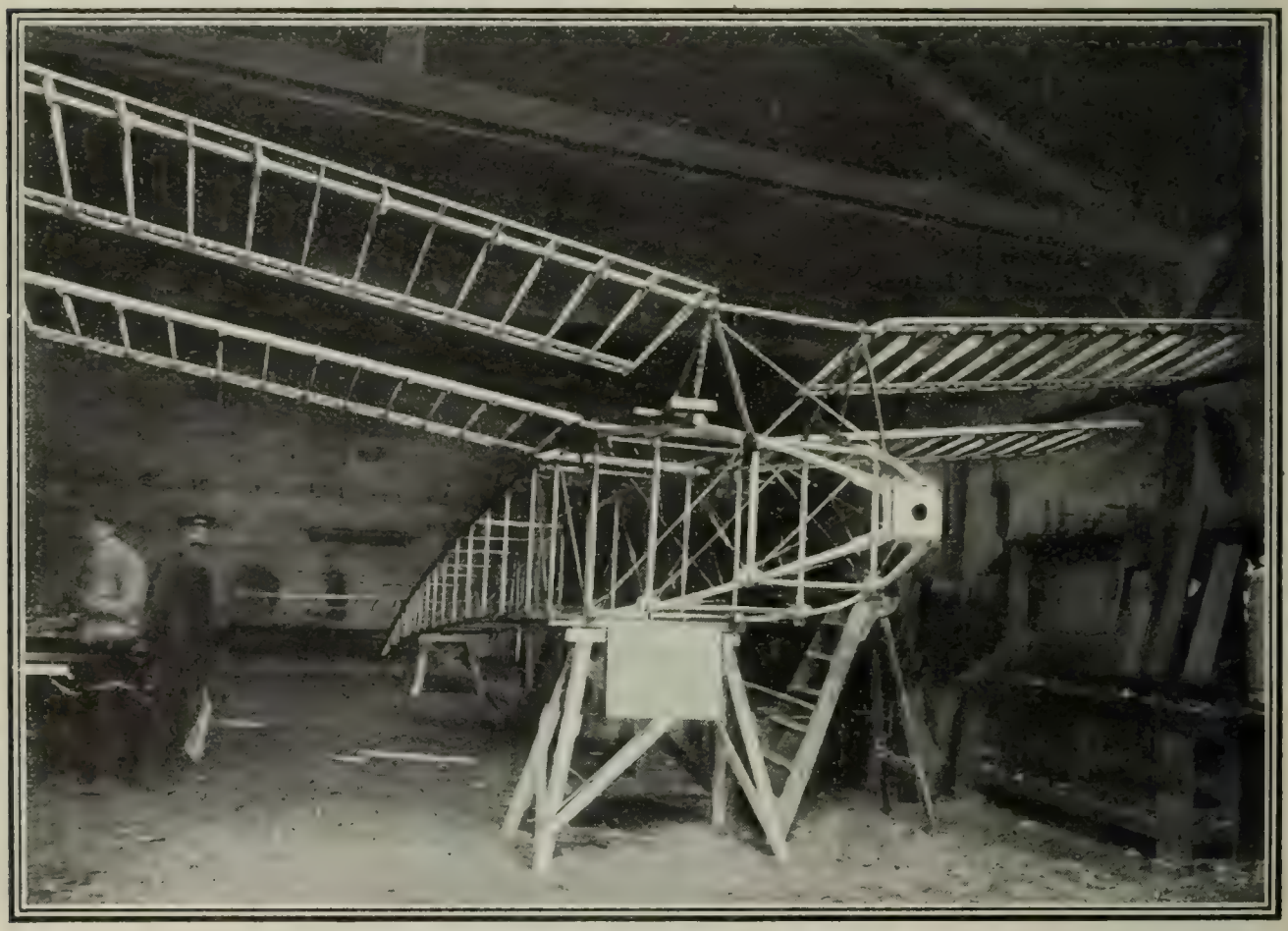
(In this machine Mr. Farman covered twelve miles in 20 1-3 minutes, at Issy-les-Moulineaux, on July 6, last.)



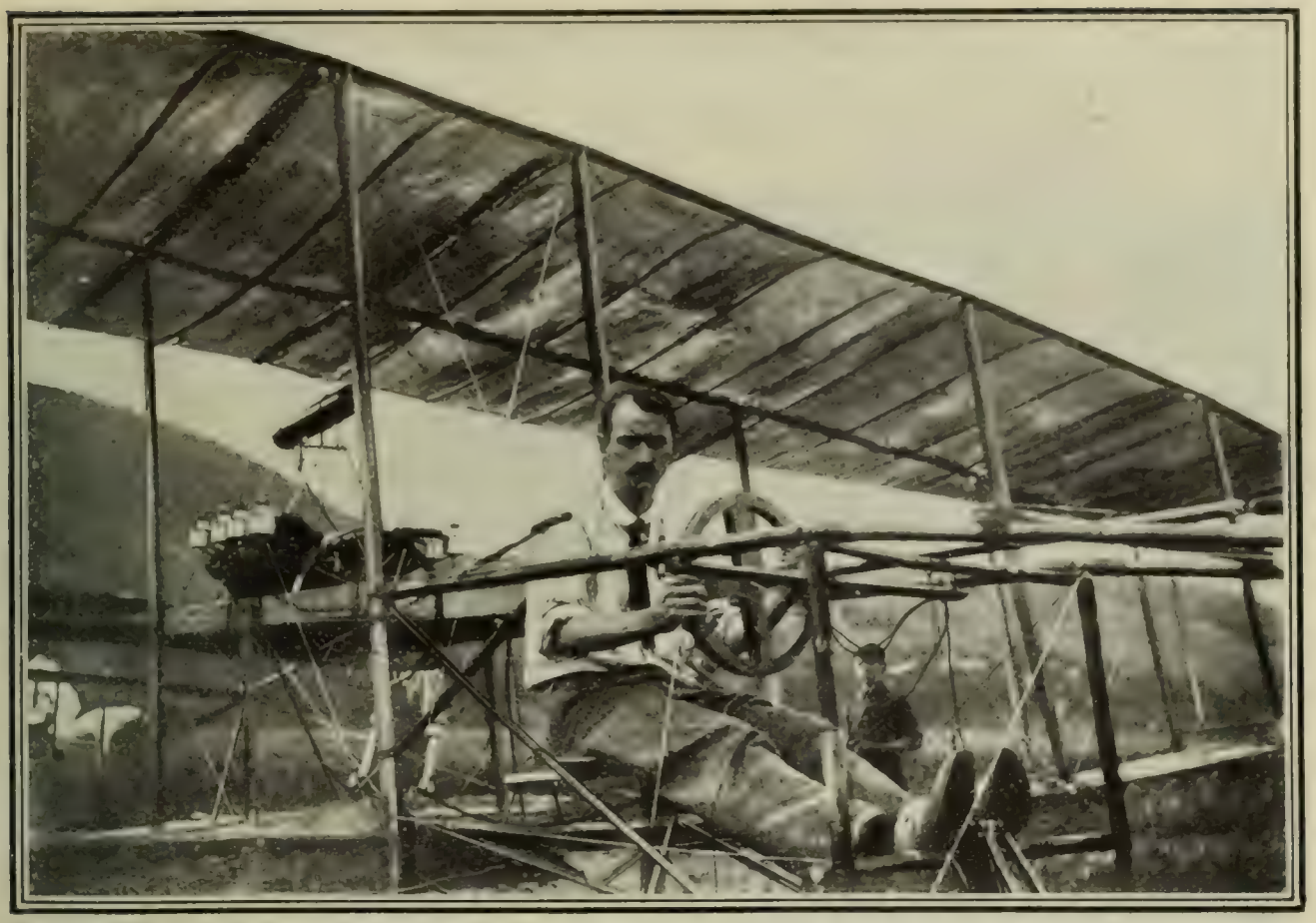
Photograph by The Pictorial News Co., N. Y.

THE FARMAN AEROPLANE JUST BEFORE THE START.

with certainty in Europe. True, Santos Dumont had once made two short flights, but he was unable to repeat the performance. In the design of the Farman machine, however, even modified as it has been, the all important quality of control in a gusty wind is sacrificed to ease of control in a calm, or a very steady wind,—the requirements of the two conditions differing appreciably. Farman intends to discard his present cumbersome machine, which excited the astonishment of the American experts who were familiar with the trim lines and the "movement" of the soaring flight of the *June Bug*. He proposes to adopt a more handy machine, with many wings of small spread. From its



THE FRAMEWORK OF FARMAN'S "FLYING FISH."



Copyright, 1908, by H. M. Benner, Hammondsport, N. Y.

GLENN H. CURTISS IN THE "JUNE BUG."

(Mr. Curtiss is not only a skilled designer of motors, but is also a successful aviator, having won the *Scientific American* trophy for the first public aeroplane-flight of a kilometer in America. Mr. Curtiss operated the Baldwin dirigible during the Government tests at Fort Myer, last month.)

suggestive shape, it has been called the "flying fish."

A NOTABLE GROUP OF AMERICAN EXPERIMENTERS.

It is only by strenuous and hazardous preparation that the aviator can fit himself for his vocation. He needs an extraordinary combination of active energy, courage, decision of purpose, a quick eye, clearness of judgment, the utmost presence of mind, and great physical dexterity. In the case not only of Farman, but also of other successful aviators of to-day, these qualities have been learned through, or supplemented by, special experience in other occupations. Glenn H. Curtiss, who a few weeks ago won the *Scientific American* trophy for the first public aeroplane flight of a kilometer in a straight line in this country, devoted many years to the study of motorcycles. Eventually, he designed his own engine, producing one of very light weight. One of these motors drove the first successful airship in America, and another was the first to drive a helicopter into the air. During last year he made over 350 motors, of which fifty were for aerial experimental work. Riding one of his motorcycles at Ormond Beach, Florida, he travelled the fastest mile ever covered by a human being, going the distance in twenty-six and two-fifths seconds. The combination of such a man and such a motor was a prize which quickly caught the eye of Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, then engaged in earnest study of and experiment in tetrahedral kite-flying, and Curtiss became one of the unique staff of the Aerial Experiment Association, Hammondsport, N. Y.

What the association has done is well known. First it turned out the *Red Wing,* which made a flight of 319 feet, and then ended its career by a crushing fall on the ice of Lake Keuka. The *White Wing,* on improved lines, soon followed, and a few months after the *June Bug* was built, representing the most efficient type of aeroplane constructed in this country, yet known to the public. In winning the trophy on July 4, the machine rose quickly and sped rapidly on at a height of twenty feet. As it neared the finishing post it dropped to about



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THE NEWEST AMERICAN AEROPLANE, THE "JUNE BUG," AT HAMMONDSPORT, N. Y., JULY, 1908.

(Standing in front of the machine, from left to right, are A. M. Herring, J. W. Baldwin, G. H. Curtiss, C. M. Manly, T. E. Selfridge, J. A. D. McCurdy, and A. R. Hawley.)

fifteen feet, made a wide sweep to the left, and alighted without damage in a rough field. The distance traversed was a mile, and the time was one minute, forty-two and two-fifths seconds, corresponding to an average speed of thirty-five and one-tenth miles per hour. The reason of this fast speed with such low horsepower, as compared with the Farman and Delagrange machines, is the diminished resistance of the tail, which has been greatly reduced. (A material element in the efficiency of the Wright aeroplane is the entire absence of a tail.)

Since the flight for the trophy was made Mr. Curtiss has made some radical changes in construction, and it is just announced that he is testing a method of keeping the motor cool indefinitely, which promises to have a far-reaching effect on the possibilities of long distance flight. An eminent scientific authority who was present at a recent flight, says: "Hitherto a two-minute run was about their limit, but now Selfridge had the machine eighty feet in the air, rolling along like a ship in a high sea. He was flying down the wind, which must have been blowing eight miles an hour. The machine handles beautifully, righting itself immediately when struck by side gusts. The *June Bug* gives you a much bigger 'sensation' than Farman's machine, for its lines are finer and the tail small and inconspicuous. In flight it resembles a gigantic yellow bird soaring, while Farman's machine suggests a big box-kite. It is under better control, too, for it has movable wing tips, which work to a charm."



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THE "JUNE BUG" WINNING THE "SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN" TROPHY, JULY 4, 1908.

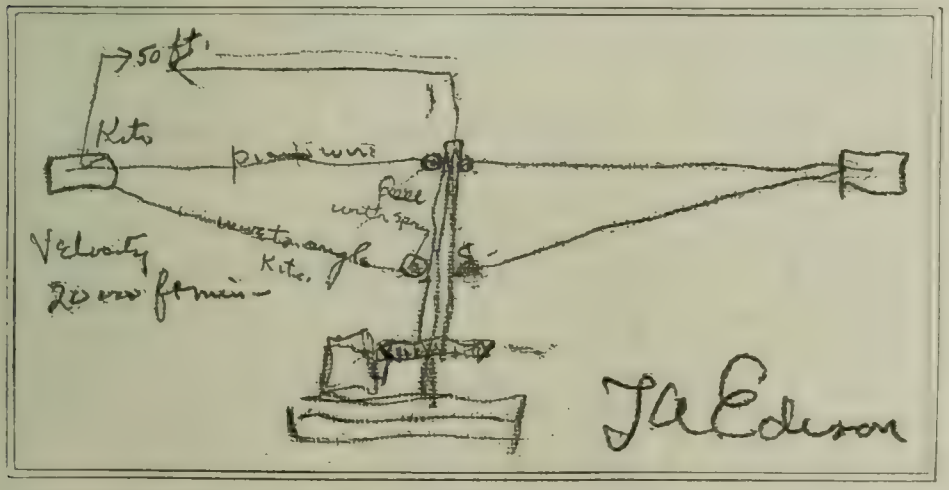
A THIRD TYPE,—THE HELICOPTER.

While the aeroplane has been steadily developing, a most significant tendency has lately asserted itself to recognize the helicopter, with its upright shaft and revolving blades,—first suggested 400 years ago, by Leonardo da Vinci,—as a practical, comparatively simple, and inexpensive flying device. It can ascend nearly vertically, and even in places closely surrounded by houses or by trees, where the operation of the aeroplane would be impossible, it can rise at a steep angle, and be quickly clear of any obstacles. In an aeroplane, violent pitching absolutely destroys the power to fly, but in the helicopter, the angle of the blade with the shaft remains constant, whether the machine as a whole pitches or not. The helicopter too can be made to hover over any given point, and can be landed safely even in the roughest kind of ground. It is believed by many authorities that when this form of machine becomes so improved as to require materially less power than it now does, it will be a formidable rival to the aeroplane, especially in the runabout class of flying machines.

EDISON'S DEVICE.

In a conversation of a few months ago, Mr. Edison said: "To get the perfect flying machine they will have to come right back to what I told the reporters years ago (in 1897), when they asked me to give them my views on that subject. I told them then that whatever progress the aeroplane might make, the helicopter would come to be taken up by the advanced students of aeronautics. Here is the type of the machine." Taking out his pencil, Mr. Edison made a sketch, that from the movement of the rapidly traveling train was necessarily rough, and continued: "Here you have a motor working a bevel gear with a large wheel which drives a central shaft. To this shaft are attached four reels, two on each side, on each of which is wound a certain length of strong piano wire. One of these wires is attached to the center of a supporting surface or kite, the other one being attached to the outer corner of the kite. Each reel is provided with a spring, which under tension causes it to pull in its own length of wire, and the kites are drawn in with the wires. The reels are so set off the center of rotation that as soon as the shaft begins to spin, and centrifugal force becomes operative, the kites fly out, overcoming the tension of the springs. Until the full length of the wires is paid out, they are thus made to cut edgewise through the air, but when the wires have been fully stretched, the one which is attached to the corner gives the kite a slight angle with the plane of rotation. As this wire is, on either side, wound on the lower reels, it determines the angle with great accuracy, and also serves as a stay against the lifting effort exerted by the kites. The upper wire is fifty feet long on either side, and the kites spin with a velocity of 20,000 feet a minute.

"In consequence of the large radius of the circle through which they are spinning, in proportion to their own comparatively small size, they practically meet constantly new air, and they will experience the same amount of resistance an aeroplane meets when propelled in a straight line. They are free from any useless resistance, as instead of carrying motors, framing, etc., there are moving along with them only two thin wires. In this way you escape the principal disadvantage of the aeroplane, which is the almost unavoidable excess of dead resistance, that in many cases is far greater than the useful resistance of the plane surfaces themselves. At the same time, in consequence of the large amount of gyroscopic action secured, a measure of natural stability is assured which renders unnecessary any more complicated device to that end. In this way



A ROUGH SKETCH MADE BY MR. EDISON TO ILLUSTRATE HIS CONCEPTION OF A FLYING MACHINE.

it is possible to support a large load on a small extent of surface, the centrifugal action being so powerful as to allow the load to be carried very far from the center of support."

The peculiarity of Mr. Edison's device is that it becomes as much an aeroplane as a helicopter, giving the high surface efficiency of the aeroplane with the absence of dead resistance of the helicopter. The machine thus embodies what have come to be regarded as the two great essentials of successful flight, —viz., low power consumption and perfect stability. Moreover, it is compact, handy, and inexpensive to make.



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THE WILLIAMS HELICOPTER.

A somewhat remarkable confirmation of Mr. Edison's prediction of more than a decade ago is seen in the aeroplane-helicopter of Carl Dientsbach, the aero expert of the Aero Club of America, which was exhibited at the second exhibition of the club, two years ago. This consists of two sails or kites, carried and directed by wires, and stretched by centrifugal force. The object of the invention is to obtain the identical advantages sought by Edison, viz., simplicity, handiness, lightness, extreme efficiency of surfaces in forward flight due to automatic pitch regulation, ease of operation, and economy in construction.

Another form of the helicopter which has excited favorable comment is that of J. Newton Williams, of Hammondsport, N. Y. This machine has two superposed propellers, in horizontal parallel planes, mounted on concentric hollow shafts, revolving in opposite directions, and driven by an eight-cylinder forty-horsepower air-cooled Curtiss motor. The propellers are seventeen feet in diameter, and the platform is six feet square. The position of the motor enables it to receive the strong downward blast of air, which strikes all the cylinders equally,—a most important factor,—and the maximum cooling efficiency is thus gained. Lateral movement is secured by inclining the blade of the propellers, the inclination being under the control of the aviator. The machine possesses in a marked degree the essential desiderata of initial stability and flexibility of movement. In its present form it can attain a speed of thirty miles an hour.

All of us who follow the course of invention have long since come to recognize the "psychological moments" when of a sudden the data of chronic failure are found to unfold the vital secret of success, and from a score of directions comes the record of achievement. There was the same activity in the first quarter of the nineteenth century over the steam engine and locomotive. There was the same splendor of result in the early '40's with the telegraph, and in the '70's with the electric light. When but one inventor is dealing with a problem, it is usually safe to infer failure; but when genius jostles for a foothold on the virgin territory, you may safely assume that the new art is just about becoming the property of mankind.

SOCIETY'S WARFARE AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS.

BY O. F. LEWIS.

THE fight against tuberculosis is frequently called a campaign of education, because only through widespread instruction given to the sufferer and his neighbors can consumption be limited, reduced, or prevented. But this fight against tuberculosis is also an education to the student of social movements, because the relatively speedy development of general interest in the fight and in the construction of social machinery to spread interest and knowledge has been a test case, so to speak, of the possibility of awakening the social conscience when a great sanitary issue is involved.



EMBLEM USED IN THE WORLD CAMPAIGN AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS.

A WELL-PLANNED CAMPAIGN.

Hardly a decade ago consumption was regarded as a modern "scourge of God"; to-day the population of city after city is learning (and remembering) that "tuberculosis is a curable disease, if treated in its incipient stages." This campaign of widespread dissemination of instruction and information is a social phenomenon that could occur only in most modern times. Earlier fights against contagious diseases were largely blundering, local, or conducted by a group or a class, generally physicians. This modern fight against the "white plague" is well planned, relatively general, and effective, because it has been undertaken by many different representative groups, which have co-ordinated their efforts. The task of spreading information about the disease, of getting the individual patients to observe instructions, and of getting groups and communities to construct and run the machinery of the campaign has been, and still is, a gigantic task. Progress or success in the fight against tuberculosis has been dependent upon the dissemination of vital information to millions of persons, of many tongues, often most wretchedly housed, and inhabiting various areas of the municipalities. The report of a notorious murder trial will be spread by the newspapers to every nook and cranny of the city, but naturally newspapers cannot be counted on to purvey tuberculosis doctrine with regularity. Yet masses of human beings must be instructed, not only how to treat the disease in themselves, but also how not to give it to others. Moreover, the fight against tuberculosis, though starting locally in many places, is essentially a common fight against a common enemy. The disease does not "stay put," and must be attacked all along the line.

RESULTS OF FIVE YEARS' WORK.

What has been done? What will be done? The former question is perhaps best answered by citing typical instances of striking activity. (1) Only five years ago the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York was appointed. What has this committee done? The handbook and the directory of organizations, sanatoria, and hospitals for the treatment of tuberculosis in the United States not only have been of great assistance to pioneers in tuberculosis work, but have had a direct influence in forming public opinion and creating a general interest in preventive measures all over the country. The "Don't Card," which in simple language gives suggestions regarding the prevention of tuberculosis, has become a standard form of literature for general didactic use. Its circulation has literally run up into the millions. Lectures on tuberculosis, mainly stereopticon, given during the five years under the auspices of the committee, have reached an audience of some 150,000 persons. The traveling tuberculosis exhibition, containing models, photographs, charts, etc., has been shown in many places in New York City to probably one-half million people. In the summer of 1907 the committee resurrected for day-camp purposes an old city ferry-boat, and proved in one summer that at relatively small cost increased weight,

good color, and a lasting appreciation of fresh air and cleanliness can be gained by consumptive "stay-at-homes." Especially important has been the establishment of ten special tuberculosis clinics and the organization of a system of distinct dispensaries, which prevent overlapping and duplication of effort, and look toward the ultimate dispensary control of tuberculosis.

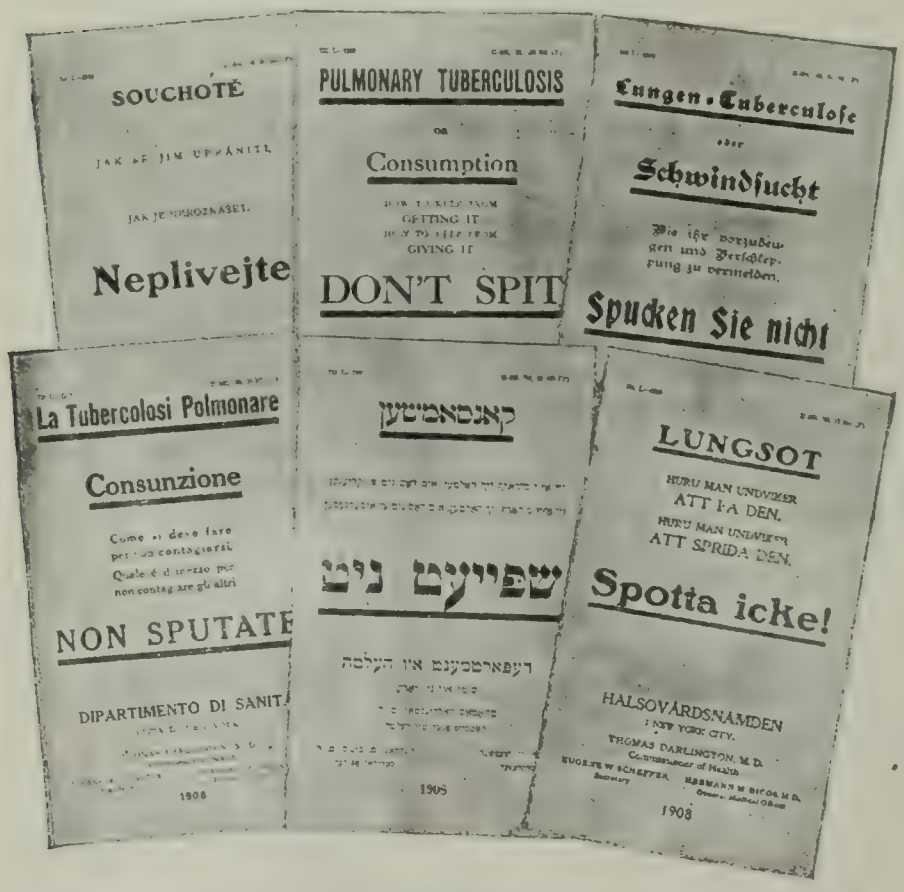
HOME TREATMENT INADEQUATE IN ADVANCED CASES.

Twenty months' exhaustive study of relief of consumptives in their homes shows conclusively that home relief in advanced cases is a dangerous substitute for isolation in hospitals, and that in an overwhelming and appalling majority of cases at present home treatment among the poor is a problem impossible of solution. Yet over 30,000 tuberculous persons in New York City tenements will, most of them, never see the inside of a hospital, although a smaller yet still large number will enter the hospital only to die there. This vitally important fact alone, emphasizing the present inadequacy of home treatment for tuberculosis, proved by the Charity Organization Society's committee of experienced members, is far-reaching and indeed epoch-making, because it means that society must do one of two things: Since hospital provision for tuberculosis by no means keeps pace with the need of hospital facilities, the disease must be attacked, checked, reduced, and diminished *in its stronghold among the tenements,* or else society must be satisfied to fight a losing fight. Society must make very heavy expenditures on the "fight" for many years, or else incur increasingly great losses in human life.

ALL MUNICIPAL AGENCIES MUST CO-OPERATE.

Only through co-operation of the most varied agencies in the municipality can tuberculosis be successfully combated. One class or group can do very little alone against this common enemy. A prominent New York physician said recently to the writer, "Never would we have gotten so far toward an adequate treatment of tuberculosis had it not been for the co-operation of many groups of persons interested in social betterment. The physician alone, tied up with individual and private cases and with hospital work, has little time to study the general tuberculosis situation or to evolve large social plans for its treatment. He is glad to be a member of tuberculosis committees, and his experience with individual cases is most valuable, but other agencies must wage the general warfare."

(2) But consumption is not a disease of the metropolis alone. From 14,000 to 15,000 persons die annually of tuberculosis in New York State. One out of every three persons dying during the time of life that should be of the greatest productive energy dies of tuberculosis, according to Professor Welch, of Johns



"DON'T" CARDS.

(The New York Board of Health and the Charity Organization Society distribute annually millions of these cards. In six languages they give simple, direct instructions for the prevention and cure of consumption. This card has become a classic, and is copied widely in other cities of the United States.)



ON THE FERRYBOAT "SOUTHFIELD," TREATMENT, FOOD, AND RECREATION ARE PROVIDED FREE.

(This combination of day-camp and home treatment has proved successful in many cases. As a substitute for country treatment it has many advantages.)

Hopkins, one of our country's most eminent physicians. Fifty thousand cases of consumption a year in New York State! The death rate per thousand of population from tuberculosis is higher in Troy, Cohoes, and Newburgh than in New York City! Such facts and many others have caused the State Charities Aid Association of New York to initiate a movement in the State to accomplish what the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis has tested by experience in the metropolis. The association has begun in Utica, Albany, Troy, and in other cities a campaign with three fundamental plans in view: (a) to cause adequate provision for the care of consumptives; (b) to promote the education of the community as to preventive measures, and (c) to promote hygienic measures that have a bearing on the prevention of tuberculosis. During the coming fall popularized information regarding the prevention and cure of consumption will be disseminated at various county fairs, a novel and effective way of spreading information.

A feature of the State campaign has been a kind of "tuberculosis revival meeting," a mass meeting at which the citizens are stimulated by speakers of experience and wide reputation to an awakened social conscience. The working program of the association is constructed not so much for country hamlets as for the smaller cities of the State. "The substitution of care and assistance for carelessness and neglect is in substance the entire program. The sanatoria for incipient cases; the hospital for advanced cases; the tuberculosis dispensaries at which the individual patient can receive medical attention and advice; the visiting nurse who can see that the advice is carried into effect in the patient's house; the charitable organizations to see that while the consumptive is receiving hospital care, he can rest assured that his wife and children are provided for, and the application of a few simple measures of public hygiene, constitute a working program for the prevention and cure of the terrible scourge known as the 'great white plague.' No other opportunity for the pro-



DR. HERMANN BIGGS.
(A leader in New York's campaign.)

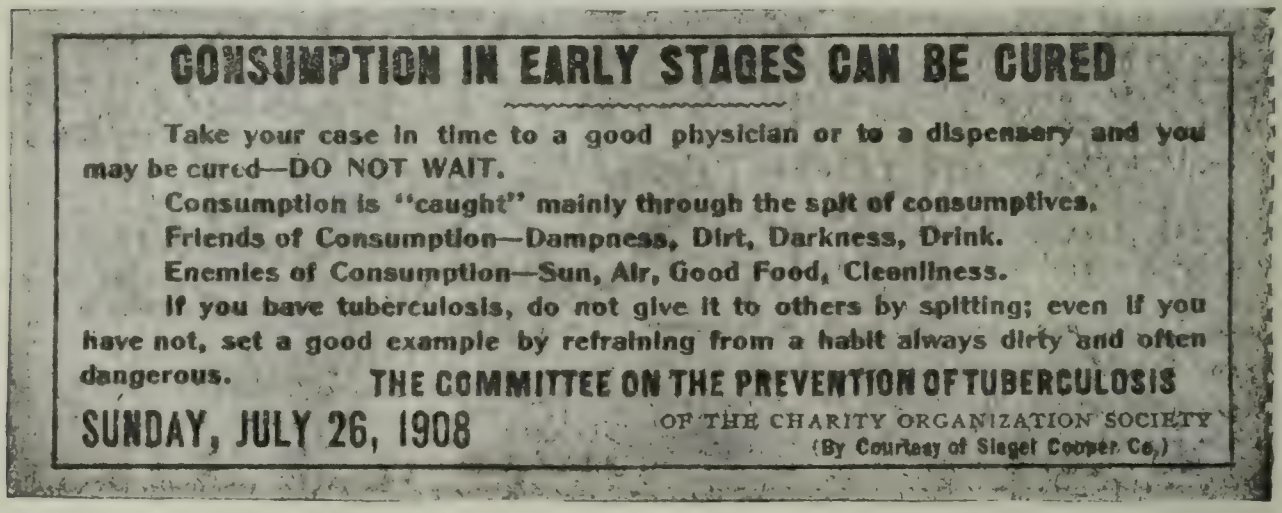
motion of social well-being compares with this one, and our duty is measured by the opportunity."

REDUCING THE DEATH-RATE.

Yet there are forty-six States in the nation, and the efforts of one State may be largely nullified if a contiguous State is lax or indifferent in the face of this disease that travels with the rapidity of every train or wind. Set side by side with Dr. Welch's statement that at present one of every three persons dying in the prime of life dies of consumption are his further words of good cheer, that "it is a conservative statement that at least one-half of the existing sickness and mortality from tuberculosis could be prevented within the next two decades by the application of national and entirely practicable measures. In Prussia the death rate from tuberculosis has diminished about 40 per cent. in the last twenty years. In Sweden there has been a similar reduction. The Health Department of New York City, largely through the admirable work of Dr. Hermann Biggs, has achieved a triumph in this regard that has attracted the attention of sanitarians throughout the world."

A NATIONAL ORGANIZATION.

(3) Therefore, there exists in our country a very active National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, with a membership numbering well toward 2000, comprising the ablest physicians and the most interested laymen in the anti-tuberculosis fight. Each one of these members, or rather each group of members, has as a general rule become the nucleus about which local efforts have centered. For instance, the nucleus of the State Charities Aid Association's Tuberculosis Committee, mentioned above, came from the National Association. One of the leading functions of the National Association has been, in the four years of its existence, the stimulating of State committees to various activities. The Na-



FAC-SIMILE OF BACK OF STREET-CAR TRANSFER SLIP USED IN NEW YORK.

(Fifty million transfers bearing tuberculosis instructions on the back are annually distributed on Sundays in Manhattan to street-car patrons through the courtesy of a large department store, which controls the space on the backs of the transfers.)



PATIENTS DINING ON BOARD THE "SOUTHFIELD."

(During the summer of 1907 the old Staten Island ferryboat *Southfield* was equipped by the Charity Organization Society as a day camp for consumptives. So successful was the plan that during the summer of 1908 the "ferryboat camp" has been managed by the city, through Bellevue Hospital.)

tional Association acts also as a kind of clearing-house for general information on tuberculosis. It originates, appropriates, and develops methods of "educating the public." The Charity Organization Society in New York evolved the idea of the traveling tuberculosis exhibition, with its charts and pictures, its "lung blocks" in miniature, and its "horrible examples" of human lungs before and after infection with tuberculosis. The national committee appropriated very properly the idea, and has a number of traveling exhibits now upon the road, endeavoring not to overlap the territory already covered by State and local associations. The exhibition, through visualizing important facts, so stimulated the anti-tuberculosis work in Virginia recently that the health authorities succeeded in passing two very good tuberculosis laws. In Kentucky the "people" were so aroused by the exhibition that an act was passed by the Legislature providing for the establishment of a State sanatorium, the bill being vetoed, however, by the Governor for lack of funds. The first exhibit of the National Association has been shown, since it started out in November, 1905, to nearly a half-million people.

SPECIAL SANATORIA AND CLINICS.

The best idea of the progress of the campaign in the United States is shown by figures describing the various organizations and establishments that have been provided. The total number of associations in correspondence with the National Association is 198, this number increasing rapidly from year to year. During 1907, and the first five months of 1908, no less than 117 special tuberculosis clinics have been opened, sixty-seven of this large number being in Pennsylvania. There are now in the United States 153 such special clinics. Since the disease must be fought largely *in the home,* the significance of even *one* dispensary *solely for tuberculosis* is obvious. Furthermore, the same rate of increase is also evident in the establishment of special sanatoria, hospitals, and day camps.

THE COMING INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS AT WASHINGTON.

(4) In September and October, 1908, the third International Congress on Tuberculosis will be held in Washington, D. C. For the first time our country will be hon-



MR. EDWARD T. DEVINE, OF NEW YORK.
(President of Section V of the coming International Congress at Washington.)

ored by this eminent body of physicians, scientists, and laymen. No such congress, it is said, will be held in the United States again during the next twenty-five years. It will be at once a peace congress and a war congress. A peace congress in so far as many different nations, with no thought of separate boundaries, will join in the making of common plans. A war congress, because the greatest modern war, against the most common and dangerous enemy of the people, is to be continued with the latest, most modern strategy. Were a war in the United States to take off every year 150,000 persons we would be horrified beyond measure, and ask if in a modern civilization such things could exist. Yet this is the estimate of the American loss from tuberculosis.

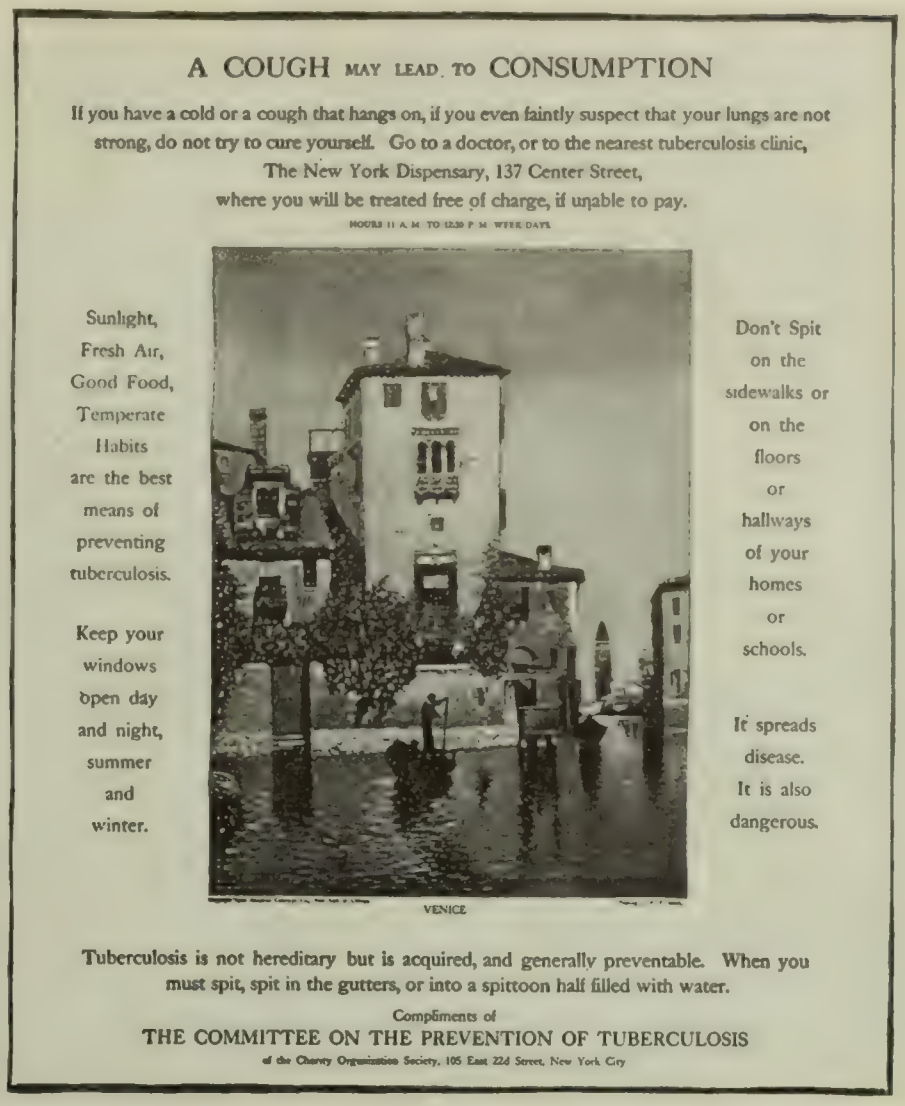
This International Congress, like other movements against tuberculosis, is comparatively young. Only about ten years ago the first European meeting of this body was held. Comparatively little is in print regarding this congress, beyond the bulky



CONVALESCENT TRANSLATING DIRECTIONS ON POSTER TO AN ITALIAN FAMILY IN NEW YORK.

(An Italian visitor, who was herself cured of consumption, distributes and explains the Venice poster and information to each family. The discovery that consumption is not hereditary and can be cured is to the tenement dwellers often a revelation.)

proceedings. Because of its international character, four official languages will be recognized,—English, French, German, and Spanish. There will be seven sections, five of which are distinctively devoted to the medical and surgical phases of the subject, and two to its social and political aspects. Section V, on the hygienic, social, industrial, and economic aspects of tuberculosis, will be under the presidency of Edward T. Devine, Ph.D., general secretary of the Charity Organization Society of New York. It is of marked significance that the presidency of this very important section is held by a layman.



(Ten thousand of these colored posters, 24 inches by 20 inches, are being distributed free to tenement dwellers in Manhattan, New York City, by the Charity Organization Society's Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis. The picture of Venice proves universally attractive, and the printed information incites remarkable interest and much discussion.)

VARIOUS CHANNELS OF INSTRUCTION.

I have cited in the four movements mentioned above but typical efforts to combat the "disease of the people" in this country. The Charity Organization Society's Tuberculosis Committee in New York has its counterparts in many American cities. The close affiliation between them permits the prompt adoption by other cities of whatever one city or the other finds "workable" or "taking" in the campaign. Recently the New York committee distributed among the Italian tenement-house population 10,000 colored pictures of a canal in Venice. On the borders of the hanging picture are printed simple instructions about the care and prevention of the disease. The picture graces the wall, and the children tell the other people, ignorant of English, what the printed words mean. And many are delighted to learn that they can receive from near-by clinics free treatment for "the cough that has lasted so long."

Other States have in certain particulars undoubtedly carried the State instruction idea further than has New York. But the New York State movement is typical. There have been attempts to nationalize other movements against tuberculosis in this country, but the national association has won permanently the position of a stimulator and clearing-house for the United States. And soon, when the international congress meets, we shall come for the first time face to face with the world-wide character of the movement, and learn in general where we as a country stand in the fight in comparison with other lands. We may find that we are not contributing our share in the campaign.

These voluntary associations are but temporary. Alone they cannot reduce or prevent tuberculosis. In the last analysis, upon the boards or departments of health must rest the burden of the fight. The primary function of the private association, be it municipal, State, or national, is educational.

MODERN CURATIVE METHODS WITH TUBERCULOSIS.

BY EDWIN L. SABIN.

IT may be said that to-day the curative treatment of tuberculosis finds itself little departed from the principles of Hippocrates, who, 400 years before Christ, advised patients to "go into the hills and drink goat's milk." Modern methods with tuberculosis are still largely advisory, and are regulated by the four essentials: air, food, rest, control; and although this regimen is filled out by certain measures tending to alleviate and aid, without these four essentials the physician of to-day is able to do little. The International Congress on Tuberculosis, which meets at Washington this fall, will have nothing beyond to offer. The single specific for tuberculosis is yet to be found.

Of course, "new cures" are being evolved constantly. We have had the "vegetable-juice" cure, the "stuffing" treatment, and various "inhalations," but one and all prove, upon real trial, to be either worthless or else of only superficial value.

However, it must not be conjectured that the curative treatment of tuberculosis has not advanced. The principles are as ever, but they are being more thoroughly applied, and their effectiveness furthered. An unremitting study is being made for a better understanding and appreciation of the fresh air, the proper food, the rest, the careful supervision.

THE MODERN FRESH-AIR PAVILION.

Fresh air maintains its position as first among the requirements in the treatment of tuberculosis. That the fresh air may be unimpeded and absolutely incapable of contamination, the outdoor pavilion is assuming the perfect type. The tent is losing ground; not even the most radical styles can be fully ventilated at all hours of all seasons with the precision of the modernly constructed pavilion. The tent is hotter than the pavilion, colder than the pavilion, and damper than the pavilion. The pavilion is also being accorded precedence over the cottage plan.

The building herewith illustrated, in use at the Agnes Memorial Sanatorium of Denver, and erected according to the plans of the directing physician, Dr. G. Walter Holden, may be accepted as an advanced and very satisfactory type, passed upon favorably by the Hague Congress. A smoke test has demonstrated that the ventilation is constant and thorough; that even when it is closed against sand-storm or driving rain there is



A MODEL FRESH-AIR PAVILION AS CONSTRUCTED IN COLORADO.

(The Agnes Memorial Sanatorium at Denver. This type of building is recommended and endorsed for its perfect ventilation and its cheapness of construction. Note the elaboration of window space, particularly the upper row of windows, set back of the projecting protective roof.)



INTERIOR OF FRESH-AIR PAVILION.

(The patients' beds are to the fore, under the protective roof; the upper row of windows, unseen in the photograph, is above the center ridgepole, or stringers, so that there is a constant circulation of air.)

still an admirable circulation. This pavilion is very cheap in construction, and can be put up in the timberless West at the cost of $200 a bed.

Sunshine has come to take a place much subordinate to that of fresh air. While the full sunshine will within six hours reduce the tubercle bacillus to a state apparently lifeless, the rays of the sun have no therapeutic power, direct, over the disease. However, as sunshine is a germ destroyer, where it permeates the atmosphere the air is consequently purer; it acts as a stimulant to the general circulation, and is a mental tonic as well; and it makes for the year-round climate whereby patients are encouraged to be out of doors.

DISCIPLINE AND HYGIENE.

The principle of food has varied little. Plenty of food, of the most nourishing and strengthening kind, is the rule; with accent upon frequency rather than upon satiety: a continual reasonable nourishment as opposed to a spasmodic stuffing.

The disciplinary effect of the sanatorium is being emphasized. In this respect, the sanatorium has an immense advantage over the home, and the independent, endowed sanatorium,—endowed either by private subscription or by public tax,—has an advantage over the sanatorium which depends upon patients' fees. In the independent sanatorium the patient who will not abide by the regulations set upon his particular diagnosis must leave.

Discipline, or personal control, is now accepted by all tuberculosis specialists as a factor of the greatest importance. On this account the pavilion is being preferred (as mentioned above) to the cottage, for it is easier to supervise the patients in the pavilion than each patient in his or her cottage.

And inasmuch as the treatment of tuberculosis is now largely individual, case differentiated from case, with air, sun, rest, food apportioned by special diagnosis, no patient can be neglected. The consumptive must not be counted upon to judge aright for himself.

Hygiene and sanitation in the everyday routine of the modern tuberculosis sanatorium have attained to astonishing thoroughness. Dishes and utensils from the patients' tables are removed automatically in metal baskets, and are automatically washed by plunges into water of a sterilizing temperature; rooms, when vacated, not only are fumigated, but are completely revarnished, before occupancy again; and the restrictions upon expectoration are iron-bound.

TUBERCULIN TREATMENT.

During the last half decade the treatment and the diagnosis of tuberculosis have adopted as valuable adjuncts three innovations, closely connected: the administration of tuberculin vaccines, the opsonic index chart, and the local inoculation of skin and eye.

Tuberculin, or the extract of the culture medium upon which tubercle bacilli may be grown in the laboratory, after its announcement by Koch fell temporarily into disrepute,—mainly because it was ignorantly used. But now, employed according to advanced methods, in its several forms it is a pronounced success. It can scarcely be called a specific; nor does it confer a high grade of immunity; but as stimulating the blood serum to turn the tubercle bacilli into available material for the protective white blood-corpuscles it is a most efficient ally on the side of recovery.

Opsonin is an element of the blood serum, discovered in 1903 by Dr. A. E. Wright, of London. The laboratory researches of Dr. Wright and his assistants proved that in order to be seized upon, surrounded or "ingested" by the proper leucocytes or white blood-corpuscles, certain noxious germs in the system must first undergo a process in the serum. The preparing fluid was named by Dr. Wright "opsonin," from the Latin word "opsonere,—to serve up, to cater to." When tubercle bacilli, then, have been "cooked," so to speak, by the opsonin, the leucocytes may become phagocytes and commit phagocytosis —or capital punishment. In the normal person the leucocytes, or white corpuscles, are the body's policemen.

The blood of the sufferer from tuberculosis is, therefore, lacking in sufficient opsonin to serve up all the bacilli to the policemen. The introduction into the circulation of tuberculin and kindred injections forms not an anti-toxin to nullify these germs, but incites and increases the opsonin,—raises what is termed the "opsonic content."

Tuberculin nowadays being administered with a view to the opsonin in the patient's blood serum, there has come the need of a guide such as the opsonic index chart, which, in the case of tuberculosis, for example, denotes whenever required the patient's resistance to the tubercle bacillus.



WHAT THE MICROSCOPE REVEALS.

(Field of a microscope, with leucocytes, or protective white blood-corpuscles, ingesting and rendering harmless tubercle bacilli. The threads, or rods, within the blotchy, irregular circular areas are the bacilli.)

THE AID OF THE MICROSCOPE.

Two fluid mixtures are prepared for microscopic examination. The one is composed of equal quantities of the blood serum of the patient, washed white corpuscles or leucocytes, and tubercle bacilli emulsion. The other mixture is the same, except that the serum is from a pool of the blood of several normal persons. White blood-corpuscles may be used indiscriminately, being, themselves, apparently of the same willingness in diseased as in healthy tissue.

A smear is made, upon microscopic slide, of each fluid mixture; equal numbers of the leucocytes are counted off, in the field of the

microscope, and the bacilli seized upon are noted; the ability of the patient's leucocytes is compared with that demonstrated by the pool's leucocytes, and the opsonic content of the patient's blood is readily computed.

Exact human normal,—the natural immunizing or defensive harmony of opsonin and the protective corpuscles,—is placed at point 1.0; allowance is given for a fluctuation between point 0.8 and point 1.2. Comparative determinations, from time to time, recorded date and index point and connected by a line ascending or descending as the opsonic phase is positive or negative, form a chart by which the patient's condition may be minutely and continuously observed, and, therewith, the effect of tuberculin when administered. Guesswork in the use of tuberculin vaccines has been deposed.

VALUE OF THE OPSONIC CHART.

An opsonic index chart may exhibit certain phenomena. In some persons clinically tubercular the opsonic index point will be practically *normal;* consequently, to overcome the morbid condition which nevertheless exists, the opsonic content must be raised and held above normal. On the other hand, in some persons clinically free from tuberculosis the opsonic index will prove decidedly " off." As example, two young children, of tuberculous parentage, but themselves seemingly well, were examined by the opsonic-index test. Clinical examination had revealed no trace of tuberculosis; however, the opsonic indices were below normal,—a token very suspicious. Tuberculin, administered, worked a change absolutely marvelous; soon increasing the weight of one child from sixty to eighty pounds, with a corresponding gain in the other child. Evidently, even if tuberculosis was not latent in the children, by poor resistance power they were predisposed to it, and were promising candidates.

Versed in the opsonic theory, while inoculating for tuberculosis the modern specialist takes occasion to inoculate for other complicating tendencies which he comes across in his microscopic determinations. He finds the opsonic index negative, for instance, toward influenza, or acne (pimples), or he notes a persistent sinus or other pus affection. To make a culture and obtain a vaccine, and to inoculate against such, raising the opsonic content in this respect also and filling in the breaches, enable the patient to present a stronger front against tuberculosis.

LOCAL INOCULATION.

A third factor in the " improved " methods of dealing with tuberculosis is the *local* inoculation, a test purely for diagnosis and prognostication or augury. Two such tests are available: the cutaneous or skin test, and the opthalmic or eye test.

In the skin test a small area, usually upon the forearm, is cleansed with alcohol; three spots, in a line, about an inch apart, are scarified by a tiny drill manipulated between thumb and finger. Only the outer skin is pierced; blood is not drawn. Upon the end scarifications is dropped a dilution of Koch's original tuberculin; the middle scarification receives only sterile water or a salt solution; after a few minutes the residue of the fluids is wiped off. The wounds are not dressed. In from three to forty-eight hours tuberculosis in the system is indicated by an inflammation of the two end scarifications; the middle one, termed the " control " and used simply for comparison, remains of course unaltered.

In the eye test the lower lid of one eye is drawn down, to expose fully the delicate mucous membrane within. A single drop of a 1 per cent. solution of precipitated tuberculin is instilled, the patient holding his head back to facilitate diffusion. As in the case of the skin, in from three to forty-eight hours tuberculosis is indicated by inflammation and by exudation, more or less severe, lasting on occasions for days.

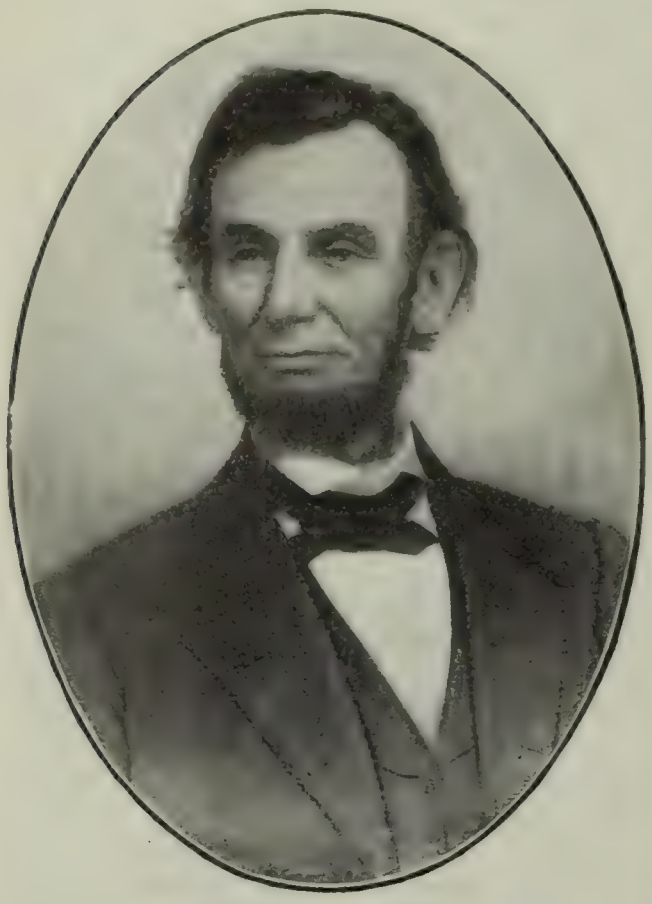
Neither of these tests is infallible. The reaction is not as yet wholly understood. The skin test is preferred for children; the eye test for adults. It is presumed that the fighting cells of the system are already combating the disease and that the introduction of more toxic matter into the tissues causes a violent effort by nature to meet this also; and, consequently, there is the local inflammation.

It is hoped that these tests, elaborated, will prove of especial value prognostically. A reaction, in any stage of tuberculosis, evinces that the system still has the ability to resist. It is not yet snowed under by the attacking forces. Therefore when such a reaction occurs in an advanced stage, the fact is encouraging; the opsonic quality of the serum is still susceptible of stimulation.

Such local tests may also be employed to demonstrate whether a patient is really a cure or is merely an arrested case, with the disease still present but latent.

WHAT SHALL THE LINCOLN MEMORIAL BE?

BY JAMES T. McCLEARY.



ABRAHAM LINCOLN.
("We think of him as he appeared when President.")

IT is hard to realize that in a few months it will be a hundred years since Abraham Lincoln was born. Men by no means old have seen him and talked with him. We think of him as he appeared when President. In the minds of the people he remains a middle-aged man. It requires some mental effort for us to realize that the twelfth of February next will be the centennial of his birth.

And how that centennial will be celebrated! In all parts of the country his eulogies will be spoken. From pulpit and platform, by quiet firesides and around banquet boards, will be told again the story of his inspiring life. The children in the schools will repeat his words, and the greatest of earth will sound his praises. All sections will unite to do him honor. The people of other lands will join in the acclaim. This nation and the world outside will feel again the uplift of his kindly and useful life.

Lincoln's best memorial will always be the affection of his countrymen. But it is customary and proper for affection to express itself in tangible form. As yet this nation has not thus expressed its affection for Lincoln. The centennial of his birth should not and will not be allowed to pass without at least a beginning being made on a memorial which shall suitably express the feeling of his countrymen toward the best beloved American.

It is high time, therefore, that careful consideration be given to the question, What shall the Lincoln memorial be?

As this is to be a national memorial, it may be assumed that the American people will desire that the memorial shall be connected with the nation's capital.



WASHINGTON MONUMENT.
("There it stands in simple majesty.")

What should be its character? It may not be amiss to begin by agreeing on some kinds of memorial that should be excluded from consideration as unsuited for a memorial to Abraham Lincoln.

First, then, the Lincoln Memorial should not be a shaft of any kind. The American people already have in their capital city the noblest memorial shaft ever erected by man, the Washington Monument. There it stands in simple majesty, towering far above every other structure in the city,—a fit memorial to the exalted character of him in whose honor it was erected.

It is unnecessary, and it would manifestly be improper, to bring Washington and Lincoln into contrast. Each was supremely great in his own way and at his own time. Probably neither could have taken the place or have done the work of the other. But to propose a shaft of any kind as the Lincoln Memorial would inevitably result in the making of comparisons and contrasts between these two great Americans. So it may be concluded that all memorials of the shaft type should be excluded from consideration.

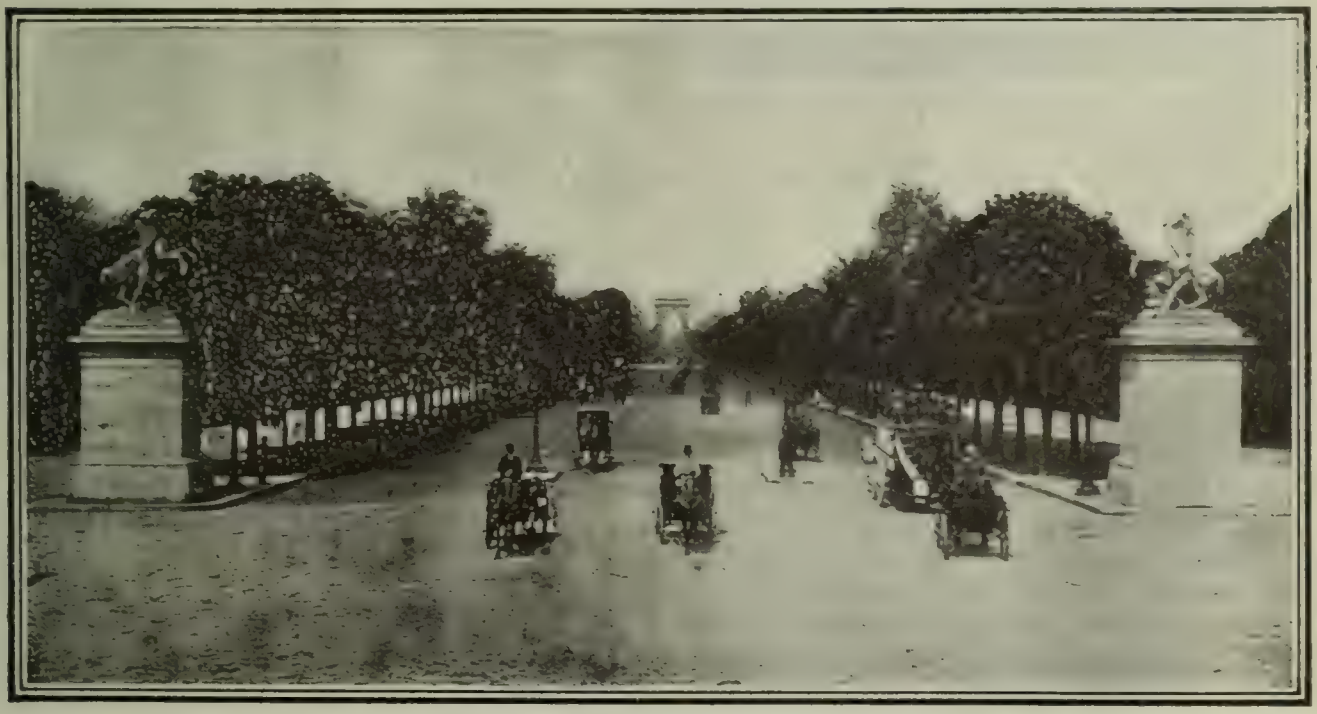
Second, the Lincoln Memorial should not be an equestrian statue. Lincoln was not at his best on a horse. Besides, we already have in the city of Washington more than one-tenth of all the equestrian statues in the entire world. Moreover, a mere statue of any kind, equestrian or pedestrian, however mounted, would be wholly inadequate as an expression of the nation's regard for Abraham Lincoln. So statues of all kinds, except as features of some comprehensive design, may be excluded from consideration.



ARC DE TRIOMPHE DE L'ETOILE, PARIS.

("This greatest of all arches is worthy of the purpose for which it was designed.")

Third, the Lincoln Memorial should probably not be an arch. No visitor to Paris fails to take a look at the Arc de Triomphe de l'Etoile. Erected on a slight elevation, this splendid arch is the center from which slope away in all directions streets and avenues bordered by trees and lined with stately mansions. The Arc is thus the crowning glory of a dozen of the most beautiful streets of Paris. No one who has looked at this noble



THE AVENUE DES CHAMPS-ELYSÉES, PARIS.



THE NELSON MONUMENT, LONDON.

arch from the Place de la Concorde up the broad Avenue des Champ Elysées can ever forget the vista. And when viewed at close range, the arch, by its great size, its admirable proportions, and the finish of its details, is seen to be worthy of its splendid setting.

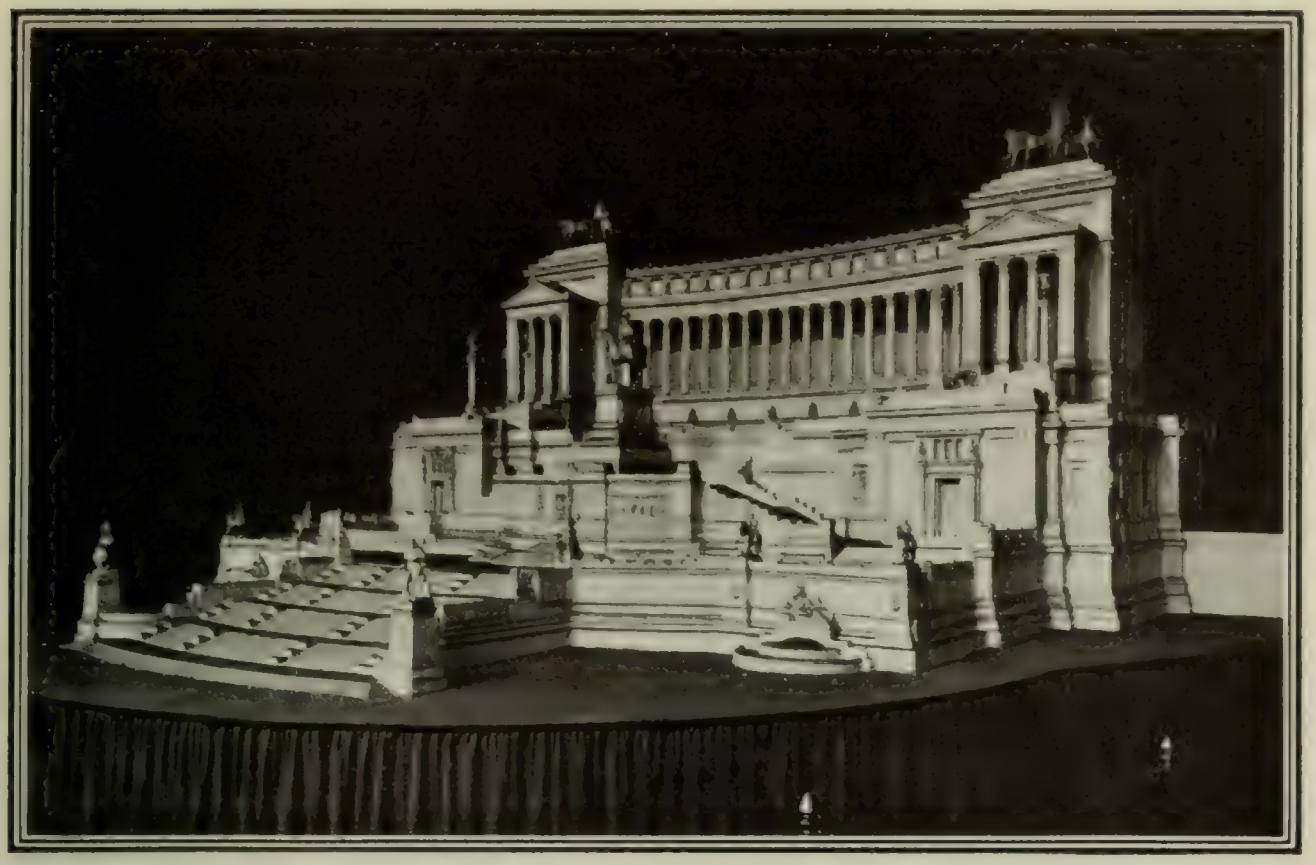
Both in itself and its setting this greatest of all arches is quite worthy of the purpose for which it was designed. As its name indicates, it is an arch of triumph, erected to commemorate the victories of the great Napoleon. Indeed, nearly all the arches that have ever been erected in ancient or in modern times, whether we regard the time-defying arches of the old Roman Forum or the beautiful but transient arch erected in New York in honor of the return of Dewey from Manila Bay, have been reared in commemoration of victories in war.

Admit that Lincoln was the commander-in-chief of the largest aggregation of fighting men ever under the direction of one man. Admit that the men he led conquered in the strife. It yet remains true that it is not alone, or chiefly, as the head of a victorious army that Lincoln is or will be remembered. While an arch, then, may be a feature of the grand design of the Lincoln memorial, the memorial cannot properly be restricted to an arch, however imposing.

Should the memorial be a great university of research? Through the munificence of Andrew Carnegie the American people already have at the capital city the Carnegie Institution of Washington with a princely endowment. Though only recently established, it gives promise of great usefulness.



SIEGES-SÄULE, BERLIN.



THE NATIONAL MEMORIAL IN ROME TO VICTOR EMMANUEL.
(Its memorial character is revealed by its imposing front.)

Should the Lincoln Memorial take the form of a building of some kind? An art gallery? We already have in Washington the Corcoran Gallery of Art, which is developing into an admirable institution of the kind. Moreover, Congress has made provision for a National Gallery of Art in connection with the National Museum. Besides, what is there about an art gallery to suggest Lincoln? How would such a memorial to Lincoln harmonize with "the eternal fitness of things"? Should the memorial be a museum of some kind? We already have the Smithsonian Institution and the National Museum, each filling its own field well. Should the memorial be something in the way of a structure that could be called, say, a Temple of Liberty? How should it be constructed? What should it contain? How could it be made to have the proper significance, aside from its name? It is hard to see or say.

Some magnificent structures have been erected as memorials,—the national memorial to Victor Emmanuel, the first king of United Italy, now being completed in Rome, for example. Its memorial character is revealed by its imposing front. Incidentally, and as part of the memorial idea, the structure is to house and protect a museum illustrative of the progress of Italy since unification. It is a beautiful building, but we already have a large number of handsome public buildings in Washington, and in the natural course of events we shall have many more. A building would hardly be distinctive enough for our purpose.

Should the memorial take the form of a bridge, say across the Potomac to connect Washington and Arlington, with its National Cemetery? There is something to be said for this suggestion. More could be said in favor of this idea than for any of the others that have been mentioned.

But to use a building or a bridge, a shaft or an arch, or any other fixed and completed thing as the memorial, would be to overlook the vital fact about Abraham Lincoln's fame,—namely, that his is a growing fame, not a fading fame. His fame will increase as the centuries roll. Hundreds of years from now Lincoln will "loom large" in the world's opinion, even larger than he does now. The governing thought in selecting his memorial, then, is that for Lincoln a finished memorial is not a fit memorial. As his fame is a living, growing one, his memorial should be of such a character that each generation can contribute something to its improvement and

embellishment. Generations yet unborn will be grateful to us if we are considerate enough to so plan this memorial as to afford them opportunity to join hands with us who knew him personally in doing honor to this unique being.

Can anything be devised that will meet all the conditions of fitness as a memorial to Lincoln? To be fitting, this memorial must recognize and symbolize the essentials of Lincoln's life and fame. It must have about it the Lincoln atmosphere. Nothing cold or austere or merely ornamental would do as a memorial of him. His was a kindly and useful and helpful life. The humblest soldier in the army felt that if he could see Lincoln himself, that strong and big-hearted man would listen sympathetically to his troubles and "lend a hand" to help him out of them. As the poet Markham has beautifully said of Lincoln, he had "the loving kindness of the wayside well." His shoulders were bent in bearing the burdens of the nation. Lincoln was born and reared in the country and always retained something of its wholesome flavor. He always felt himself one of "the common people." His aim was to be of service to them.

Lincoln's character was unique; so should his memorial be. His life was a glorification of the lowly and the common; so should his memorial be.

After spending several months in Europe in 1905, as the special representative of the Abraham Lincoln Memorial Commission appointed by Congress, in search of ideas for this national memorial, after seeing the best memorial creations of many countries,—arches, shafts, bridges, buildings, not to mention statues and other memorials,—the writer returned home profoundly impressed with the idea that the finest memorial in Europe is something which was not constructed with the idea of its being a monument, but for a wholly different purpose, yet which fulfills most admirably the memorial purpose in that it perpetuates a name and an act. That impressive memorial is the Appian Way. Three hundred years before Christ, the Roman Consul Appius Claudius built a great road from Rome to Capua, which was afterward extended to Brindisi. This road, named after its builder the Via Appia, or Appian Way, was celebrated for the beautiful monuments, the magnificent temples, and the sumptuous villas that arose on either side of it. Cicero, Horace, and others were in the habit of calling this the "Queen of Roads."

The temples have fallen, the monuments have been destroyed, the villas are in ruins; but to-day, twenty-two centuries after Appius Claudius built it, the road is still in use, bearing the burdens of commerce and the name of its founder. What a memorial! How worthy! How enduring!

Appius Claudius was one of Rome's greatest generals; but how many now living can even name one of his victories? He was a very wise ruler; but how many now living can recount his civil achievements? He was one of Rome's foremost writers; but how many now living have ever read one of his many books? All of these things gave him temporary fame, but all failed to give him permanent fame. But he built a great highway, and who has not heard of the Appian Way?

While riding along the Appian Way the writer remembered a suggestion that he had heard but had not heeded much, that a great highway would be the most suitable memorial to Lincoln. The more the suggestion has



"BAVARIA," MUNICH.



THE APPIAN WAY, ROME, ITALY.

("The temples have fallen, the monuments have been destroyed, the villas are in ruins: but to-day, twenty-two centuries after Appius Claudius built it, the road is still bearing the burdens of commerce and the name of its founder. What a memorial!")

been thought over, however, the more significant and valuable it has become.

From the White House to Gettysburg Abraham Lincoln journeyed to deliver a speech which will be recited by school boys a thousand years from now, and which will stand as a classic as long as the English language is spoken. A broad and splendid highway, the best in the world, from the grounds of the White House to the battlefield of Gettysburg, to be called "The Lincoln Road" or "The Lincoln Way," will, in the judgment of the writer, stand the test as the most appropriate memorial that could be constructed to show our respect and affection for Abraham Lincoln.

Gettysburg is itself a memorial, eloquent of things done and of things said. Here was fought the most important battle of the greatest of wars. Here was exhibited valor unsurpassed in the annals of military prowess. The men who wore the blue and the men who wore the gray, their descendants and their countrymen, can all properly exult as Americans in the valiant deeds that were here performed. Here, too, was pronounced Lincoln's matchless speech, which "crystallized the spirit of the Republic into a paragraph."

The battlefield of Gettysburg is only in very small part a cemetery. In the main it is a magnificent park, on the adornment of which over seven millions of dollars have been expended,—"and the end is not yet." No one who has not seen this most richly endowed place can have any idea how wonderfully interesting and attractive it is. It is by far the finest battlefield-park in the world.

Though money has thus been generously expended in beautifying the battlefield of Gettysburg and in suitably marking its scenes of heroic deeds, it is so inaccessible that comparatively few people are able to visit it. Of all the hosts of travelers of this and other countries who visit Washington every year, not one in ten thousand ever gets to Gettysburg, though nearly all of them would like to visit this historic field.

Gettysburg lies almost due north of Wash-

ington and about seventy-two miles away, as this road would run. What a fitting memorial to Lincoln would be a noble highway, a splendid boulevard, from the White House to Gettysburg, from the house where his record for statemanship was achieved to the spot where he struck the highest note of human eloquence! The seventy-two miles would give sufficient length to the highway to justify its use as a national memorial. The country to be traversed offers no special engineering difficulties. It is just about sufficiently rolling to afford fine landscape effects and to furnish opportunity for a handsome bridge here and there. The width of the road should comport with its memorial character. Let us say tentatively that the width should be 200 feet.

As a suggestion, the following plan for "The Lincoln Road" is submitted:

Down the middle of the road let there be a greensward forty or fifty feet wide, a well-kept lawn looking like a beautiful green carpet of velvet. To lend variety to this central line of beauty, here and there flower gardens and other decorative features could be introduced. At intervals could be erected fountains and other monumental embellishments that might be appropriate.

On each side of this central line of beauty let there be a smooth roadway forty or fifty feet wide, constructed according to the highest engineering standard of "good roads." One of these roadways may be reserved for swift-moving vehicles like automobiles, and the other for slow-moving vehicles like carriages and wagons.

Outside of these driveways could be double-tracked electric railways, occupying a width of twenty feet each and separated from the driveways by hedges. One of these railways could be for express trains of high speed and stopping only at intervals of ten or fifteen miles; the other could be for local trains moving slowly and stopping at short intervals.

Bordering "The Lincoln Road" on each side there should be a row or rows of stately trees, the rows broken at points where could be obtained fine views of mountain or valley or river.

In order that "The Lincoln Way" may be built with certainty and without delay, it should be constructed under the direction of a national commission and should be paid for out of the national Treasury. But full opportunity should then be given to the individual States to express their regard for Lincoln. To each State in the Union may be allotted a portion of "The Lincoln Way" to be embellished in accordance with its taste and means, subject to the approval of the national commission. Other spaces could be allotted for embellishment to national patriotic societies. Opportunity should be afforded to succeeding generations to add something to beauty of "The Lincoln Way." So long as patriotism glows in the hearts of the American people, it will be for them a labor of love to add from time to time to this expression of national affection, keeping "The Lincoln Way" at the forefront as the best and most attractive highway in the entire world.

Having in mind the possibilities of electrical illumination, the beauty of this boulevard when lit up at night may be left to the imagination.

What is really proposed is not so much a perpetuation of the fame of Abraham Lincoln, which is already secure, as an appropriate expression of our appreciation of him. It is of the essence of this memorial that it be a living and growing memorial, instinct with the spirit of him whom it is to commemorate. That there will be a maintenance cost is in harmony with the governing idea. And it would be entirely fitting that this cost of maintenance should be borne out of the national Treasury. But it is the opinion of experts who have been consulted that, in view of the hundreds of thousands of tourists who may be expected to make the trip from Washington to Gettysburg yearly, the road can be made largely, if not wholly, self-sustaining. If, when the roadway is being constructed, the tracks for the electric lines be laid as part of the general construction, it is believed that the use of these tracks can be leased for a considerable sum of money annually to an operating company which would furnish its own rolling stock. This arrangement, while furnishing transportation at rates within the reach of every one, would provide from a proper source,—the actual users of the road,—income for its maintenance. In addition, considerable income could be derived from special licenses for the running of public and private automobiles over this road.

Lincoln's fame is inseparably connected with the preservation of the Union of the American States. This road would cross the famous Mason and Dixon line, formerly the dividing line between the North and the South. The road would, therefore, serve as a wedding ring for the sections once tem-



THE GRAND BOULEVARD, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

(A conspicuous American example of ample and beautiful road designing.)

porarily dissevered—as a symbol of the Union to which Lincoln dedicated his life.

Imagine a two-hours' ride in the morning over that magnificent road from Washington to Gettysburg, through beautiful Maryland and Pennsylvania, with the Blue Ridge Mountains in sight part of the way. Imagine even six to eight hours spent at the world-renowned battlefield-park, seeing Round Top and Little Round Top, Seminary Ridge and its famous Theological Seminary, Cemetery Hill and Culp's Hill, the Chambersburg Pike and the Emmetsburg Road, the Peach Orchard and the Apple Orchard, the Wheat Field and Devil's Den, "High Tide at Gettysburg" and other noted spots, traversing the ground where the First Minnesota won eternal fame, and following the sweep of Pickett's wondrous charge. Imagine the visit to Gettysburg ended by standing for a time reverently where Lincoln delivered his immortal speech, at the "final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that the nation might live," and the day closed by the return trip to Washington in the evening. What a never-to-be-forgotten day that would be! Imagine such a trip being taken by hundreds of thousands of Americans every year! Can any one measure the mental and moral uplift, the exaltation of spirit, the deepening and strengthening of patriotic sentiment and devotion to public duty that would result? Would not the inspiration thus secured render it more certain that "government of the people, by the people, for the people shall not perish from the earth"?

If it were possible to consult Abraham Lincoln himself as to the character of memorial that would be most pleasing to him, can any one doubt what his answer would be?

THE ENGLISH-SPEAKING COUNTRIES IN THE SOUTH PACIFIC.

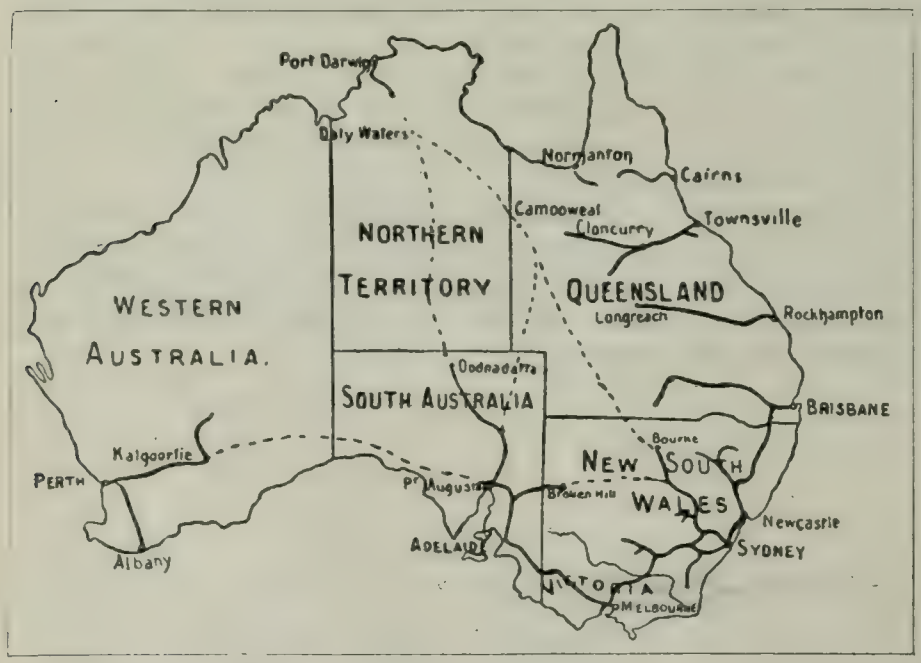
AUSTRALIAN journals are constantly repeating the words of Premier Deakin in his speech in the federal Parliament upon the occasion of the decision to invite the American battleship fleet to visit Australian ports. Mr. Deakin declared, in substance, that this fraternizing of the two English-speaking peoples on the Pacific Ocean would mark a distinct epoch in history. The entry of the American fleet into the Pacific, says the leading Melbourne journal editorially, "is for us something more than a stately procession of ships."

It was very appropriate that Rear-Admiral Sperry's fleet should have begun its homeward voyage by making the first port of call among the English-speaking peoples. The entertainment of the fleet by the New Zealand port of Auckland, which was reached on August 9, and its later reception by the Australian cities of Sydney and Melbourne, directed the attention of the American people to Britain's vast possessions in the South Pacific.

To many, if not most, Americans it will not be restating the obvious, and it may be useful to recall, rapidly and briefly, a few points about New Zealand and the Australian Commonwealth. Australia proper, the largest island in the world, with an area of approximately 3,000,000 square miles, is a British possession made up of five self-governing colonies,—New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, and Western Australia on the mainland, and Tasmania, the island to the southeast, the six together forming the Commonwealth of Australia, with British New Guinea as a dependency. The island of New Zealand is a separate self-governing colony in the Pacific, 1200 miles to the east. The population of Australia and



THE RIGHT HONORABLE ALFRED DEAKIN.
(Premier of the Australian Commonwealth.)



MAP SHOWING THE PROPOSED TRANSCONTINENTAL RAILWAYS IN AUSTRALIA.

Tasmania is about 5,000,000 and that of New Zealand somewhat less than 1,000,000. The chief cities of Australia,—Sydney and Melbourne,—are in approximately the same latitude as Buenos Aires and not quite as far south of the equator as New York is north. These urban centers of Australia and New Zealand are fine, large, modern cities. Sydney and Melbourne each has a population of more than half a million; Adelaide has 168,000; Brisbane, 125,000; Auckland, 80,000; and Hobart, the capital of Tasmania, has 35,000.



EARL DUDLEY, NEW GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF AUSTRALIA.

On the first day of the new century the Australian Commonwealth became officially a fact. The administration of government consists of a federal Parliament, in which legislative power is vested, consisting of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The British King is represented by a Governor-General. The Hon. Alfred Deakin is Prime Minister and Minister of Internal Affairs, and since May the Rt. Hon. William H. Ward, the Earl of Dudley, has been Governor-General. The state parliaments retain legislative authority in all matters which are not by the constitution explicitly transferred to the federal Parliament. The executive power, theoretically vested in the King of Great Britain, represented by the Governor-General, is exercised by the Premier, assisted by an Executive Council of seven ministers of state,—Minister of External Affairs, Attorney-General, Minister of Trade and Customs, Treasurer, Postmaster-General, Minister of Defense, and Minister of Home Affairs. There is to be a permanent federal capital in New South Wales whenever the Australians can agree upon the point at which it is to be built. In the meantime the federal government has its seat at Melbourne. The separate self-governing "Dominion" of New Zealand consists of two principal islands and a number of small outlying islands, making a total area of somewhat over 100,000 square miles. It has a Governor-General, appointed by the crown, and a General Assembly consisting of two chambers, the Legislative Council and the House of Representatives. The present Governor-General is Baron Plunket, and the present Prime Minister, who also holds the portfolios of the treasury, the postoffice, and national defense, is the Hon. Sir J. G. Ward.

Australian and New Zealand politics revolve around four central questions: (1) the perpetual conflict between the powers of the federal Parliament, strictly limited as they

are by the terms of a written constitution, and those unspecified powers which belong to the states; (2) the relations of labor and capital, regulated among these South Sea English-speaking peoples by more radical and pro-socialistic legislation than anywhere else in the world; (3) the immigration problem, which is part of the labor problem, taking the form of a demand for a "White Australia," and sifting down to an insistent and virtually universal demand for the exclusion of Asiatic immigrants, particularly Japanese; and (4) the question of imperialism, including as it does the problem of defense.

Economically the problems which face the commonwealth of Australia arise out of the physical conformation of the island continent. The vast central portion and extending far to the north and west is a desert, and around this arid area is much unexplored territory, semi-arid in character, which needs but the touch of water to make it blossom with vast tropical and semi-tropical agricultural wealth. Irrigation and water-storage enterprises on a colossal scale are engaging the attention of the Australian people. The colony of New South Wales is at present planning a vast water-storage scheme, while Victoria, in the Trawool Reservoir, has an enterprise which promises to be the greatest in the world. The railroad question is also a vital one. It is more than 3600 miles from Melbourne to Port Darwin across the continent, and from Sydney to Perth an even greater distance. Journeys between these places are now actually made by water, necessitating long voyages. As yet Australia has but few railroads. The building of transcontinental transportation systems is, therefore, of vital importance to the future of the country. The present ministry has a gigantic scheme for transcontinental lines which would bring the capitals of the different provinces into direct connection.

The Australians have been for many years in great fear of Asiatic labor. At first the doctrine of a "White Australia" had reference chiefly to the menace to Australian labor from the importation of Kanakas. Within the past few years, however, it has become the cardinal creed of all parties to cry out against all dark-skinned immigrants, Asiatics generally and Japanese in particular. The Australians profess to fear a future Japanese domination over their continent. With this in view, there is a growing demand that instead of contributing a stated sum toward the maintenance of the British Navy and other purposes of imperial defense, Australia, having in mind her sparseness of population and her enormous coastline, which, the fearful ones say, may some day invite the attention of Japanese imperialists, should devote her energies and resources to her own coast defense by means of land fortifications and the building of an adequate navy. Australians have heard about the attitude of our own Pacific Coast in the matter of Asiatic immigration, and therefore their statesmen, disturbed as they have been by the alliance of the British Empire with what one Australian statesman has called the only power Australia dreads,—Japan,—are particularly sincere and hearty in their welcome to the American fleet of warships in their present round-the-world tour. However little of challenge there may be in the world voyage of our warships, Australia interprets it as an anti-Asiatic demonstration by the nearest Anglo-Saxon power.



HOW AUSTRALIA REGARDS THE YELLOW PERIL AND THE PITIFULNESS OF HER MEANS OF DEFENSE.
From the *Bulletin* (Sydney).

OLD-AGE PENSIONS IN ENGLAND.

BY GUERNSEY JONES.

IT was Mr. Joseph Chamberlain who first popularized the question of old-age pensions in England and brought it within the realm of practical politics, although the idea may be said to have originated fully thirty years ago with Canon Blackley. For many years Mr. Chamberlain advocated old-age pensions in which the workmen, in accordance with the German model, should contribute at least something to the expense. He was, however, soon outbid in generosity by Mr. Charles Booth, whose scheme for universal non-contributory pensions is now widely popular. The objections to compulsory contributions as ordinarily stated in England are as follows:

1. So large a proportion of English workmen receive only 20 shillings and even less per week that they cannot in justice be compelled to contribute even the smallest amount. 2. The great majority of women, who are not wage earners, would be excluded from its benefits, though they form precisely the class most in need of help. 3. The British workman is not sufficiently docile and regimented to submit to governmental dictation in the disposal of his wages.

Ultimately, Mr. Chamberlain dropped the contributory feature of his plan. Thus the proposals ran the inevitable gamut, compulsory insurance, assisted insurance, free insurance.

In spite of much opposition on the part of charity workers and other experts, the idea grew rapidly in public favor. Both parties became deeply pledged to it. No matter which party came into power, an Old-Age Pension bill was politically inevitable as soon as the exchequer had partially recovered from the effects of the South African War. When Mr. Lloyd-George announced that £7,500,000 could now be made available, the problem of the ministry in drafting a bill was little more than the introduction of sufficient restrictions and disqualifications to keep the initial expenditure within that amount. For the rest, the main features of the bill had been determined in advance by public opinion.

PROVISIONS OF THE NEW BILL.

The bill as originally introduced provided for a weekly pension of 5 shillings to all persons over seventy years of age who fulfilled certain statutory conditions. The House of Commons substituted for this provision a sliding scale based upon the private income of the recipient, in such manner that the total income, supplemented by the pension, will range from 10 to 13 shillings per week. Those with no private income will of course have less. The bill now grants 5 shillings to those whose incomes are £21 or less per year; 4 shillings to those whose incomes reach £23 12s. 6s.; 3 shillings to those with £26 5s.; 2 shillings to those with £28 17s. 6s.; 1 shilling to those whose incomes do not exceed £31 10s.

It will be noticed that this is really an act for augmenting small incomes. It differs from the old outdoor relief only in that the funds are provided by the central government, are more certain and slightly larger in amount, and carry with them no civil disability. The sentimental difference, however, is expected to be much greater, as the old-age pensions are intended to be free from any suggestion of degradation or disgrace. The statutory conditions and qualifications are as follows:

The pensioner must be seventy years or more of age, a citizen of the United Kingdom, and a resident thereof during the preceding twenty years. Lunatics, criminals, inebriates, and wastrels are excluded, and all those who since January 1, 1908, have received any such poor relief as disqualifies them for registration as parliamentary electors. The purpose of the last disqualification is to prevent local guardians of the poor from unloading their aged paupers upon the pension fund. It disqualifies about 280,000 persons, whose pensions if granted would amount to over £3,500,000. It will be retained only until Parliament overhauls its poor-laws in the immediate future.

The machinery of pension administration involves the co-operation of local committees with two departments of the central government. The local committees are chosen by the councils of boroughs or urban districts with a population of 20,000 and over, and by the county councils for the remaining territory. The Treasury appoints as many pension officers as it sees fit. Applications for pensions are made to the local committee and

referred to the pension officer for investigation and report. The pension officer, representing the Treasury, is expected to play the part of *advocatus diaboli* and to produce every valid reason he can discover why the pension should be refused. The local committee, on the other hand, in its anxiety to keep down the local poor-rate, is expected to lean somewhat to the side of the applicant. When the decision of the committee is in accordance with the recommendation of the pension officer the case is settled. When it is contrary to the recommendation of the pension officer, the case is taken to the Local Government Board, the central pension authority, whose decision is final. There is no appeal to the law courts. Payment will be made weekly through the postoffice, and will begin to accrue on January 1, 1909. The cost of administration is estimated at £250,000 per annum.

THE COST OF THE SCHEME.

No one pretends to know what the cost of the pensions will be in future years. There is even great uncertainty as to the initial expense. The number of persons qualified to receive pensions is known approximately, but it is impossible to say what proportion will apply for them at once, or what amount in the sliding scale they will receive. Mr. Lloyd-George has provided £1,250,000 for the last quarter of the current fiscal year, and expects the scheme to cost £6,500,000 the first year and £7,500,000 the year after.

This, however, in the language of Mr. Lloyd-George, is only "a first installment," "a beginning and only a beginning." The popular idea is universal pensions beginning at sixty-five. While there is no unanimity as to the proper amount for a pension, it will certainly be difficult to keep the maximum at 5 shillings, which, in the towns at any rate, is "just enough to starve on." It is also freely predicted that the disqualifications and sliding scale will have to be abandoned as impracticable, and that invalidity as an additional source of disability will ultimately have to be recognized. If the pensions are extended in accordance with these principles and raised only slightly in amount, the total cost cannot be less than £40,000,000. In view of the rapidly increasing cost of old-age pensions wherever tried in the British colonies, and in view of the present state of English opinion and the prospects held out by authoritative speakers during the course of the parliamentary debates, it is certain that the pressure to extend the operation of the act in a liberal direction will be irresistible. It is not the expenditures incurred in the present bill, but the prospect for the future, that fills a veteran financier, like Lord Cromer, with grave apprehension.

WHERE IS THE MONEY COMING FROM?

Any one listening to the debates in the House of Commons during the passage of the bill must have been puzzled at first to discover the exact ground of disagreement between the ministry and the opposition. It was only occasionally and by way of exception that a member opposed the bill fundamentally on the ground of its pauperizing effect, its weakening of the sense of family responsibility, its discouragement of friendly societies and private pension funds, or its possible deleterious effect upon wages and upon cottage rents, especially in the country, where the greater number of aged poor are to be found. The opposition for the most part hectored the ministry at every possible point, and then voted solidly for the bill. Only ten votes were cast against it on its third reading. Yet it would be unjust to accuse the opposition of insincerity. The truth is that the one fundamental difference between the parties was not debated at all and will not be until the budget is brought in next spring. That difference is involved in the question, Where is the money coming from?

It is thought that £5,000,000 may safely be taken from the sinking fund. The re-remainder must be raised by additional taxation. If the Liberals have their way, the necessary sums will be raised by direct taxation so arranged as to fall most heavily upon the wealthy classes. The Unionists, however, are not without consolation in the thought that a heavy increase in taxation will make the inauguration of indirect taxation easier, perhaps inevitable. Free-traders like Lord Cromer fear that "tariff reform" has been brought perceptibly nearer. It is considered by no means impossible that protection may make its triumphal entry into Great Britain on the back of old-age pensions. The Socialists, on the other hand, are of the opinion that a vastly increased revenue can only be obtained permanently by the nationalization of various properties and industries. Thus each party approaches the subject with an eye to ulterior objects of an entirely different character. The opposition up to this point has been mere preliminary skirmishing. The real battle is yet to come.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

LABOR'S CHOICE BETWEEN THE PARTIES.

THE attitude of President Gompers, of the American Federation of Labor, in the present national campaign having occasioned much comment in the press, several pages of the *American Federationist* for August are devoted to an explanation by Mr. Gompers of his position. His editorial is headed: "Both Parties Have Spoken,—Choose Between Them." In order that there may be no misunderstanding of the fundamental issues in which labor organizations generally are interested this year, Mr. Gompers reproduces the so-called "labor" planks proposed by his organization to the Republican convention at Chicago, together with the injunction plank actually adopted by the convention, concerning which Mr. Gompers says:

At a glance, the plank adopted will be seen to be a flimsy, tricky evasion of the issue. It is an endorsement of the very abuse against which labor justly protests, and would, if enacted by Congress, give statutory authority for the issuance of injunctions in labor disputes, an authority which does not now exist. *It is a pro-injunction, not an anti-injunction declaration.* It is worse than "meaningless and evasive," as the capitalist corporation press has designated it. It would make more acute the wrongs by which the toilers are forced to bear the unjust judicial burden of injunction discrimination.

That part of the plank declaring that the Republican party will uphold the authority and integrity of the courts is a gratuitous, indefensible, and covert insult, not only to the men of labor, but to the courts themselves. It implies that the integrity and legal authority of the courts have been questioned. It was adopted to appease the corporation magnates and corporation lawyers, who demanded that the Republican convention adopt such a declaration. The same sort of influence which demanded the incorporation of this declaration in regard to the courts fashioned the declarations and attitude of the chambers of commerce and boards of trade of New York and elsewhere during the revolution for American independence when they assured King George of their loyalty to the British crown and their unalterable opposition to American independence. It were better that the Republican convention had entirely ignored the question than to have attempted to foist such a plank upon the people.

The framers of this plank of the platform evidently were not in accord with the declaration of Lincoln, which labor submitted for adoption, that "labor is prior to and independent of capital. Capital is only the fruit of labor and could never have existed if labor had not first existed. Labor is the superior of capital and deserves much more consideration." Indeed, the convention disregarded the martyred Lincoln's warning that "you can fool some of the people all the time, all of the people sometimes, but you cannot fool all the people all the time."



PRESIDENT SAMUEL GOMPERS, OF THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR.

Labor contends that there is no law authorizing or warranting the issuance of these extraordinary injunctions which are applied in labor disputes.

The toilers demand that they be regarded upon an equality before the law with all other citizens.

The decision of the Supreme Court in the Danbury hatters' case declared the labor organizations trusts, when, as a matter of fact, labor organizations are voluntary in character and formed for the purpose of protecting and advancing personal rights.

It is impossible to determine the rules and laws governing the labor of working people without affecting their personalities, their bodies, their minds, their very souls. Labor asked the Republican convention to, in essence, declare for the enactment of a law recognizing human rights and human freedom. It wholly failed to meet the requirements of an intolerable, unjust, and un-American situation. No relief was either declared or promised.

After the rejection of their overtures at Chicago the members of the Executive Council of the American Federation went to Denver at the time of the Democratic convention and submitted planks which, except for the preamble and change of party name, were identical with those submitted to the Republican convention. While the convention did not adopt those planks, the Platform Committee reported a statement of principles which Mr. Gompers declares to be "substantially identical with labor's principal demands."

After the adoption at Denver of the so-called "labor" planks each member of the Executive Council, in interviews with the press, expressed personal gratification and approval. Mr. Gompers explains his own position in the following paragraphs:

We desire to repeat here that we believe that the whole mass of the workers of the country will respond in hearty sympathy with the Democratic party in the coming campaign as a result of its action in the labor planks of the platform. They will be of practical benefit to the workers.

We have no hesitation in urging the workers and our friends throughout the country to support the party in this campaign which has shown its sympathy with our wrongs and its desire to remedy them, and to see that the rights of the people are restored.

We say this not necessarily because it is the Democratic party which has done this. We would urge the workers to support any party which had incorporated our demands into its platform and promised to work for their fulfillment.

A deliberate attempt is being made by the opposition press to make it appear that "Gompers has promised to deliver the labor vote to the Democratic party."

Such a statement is so absurd as to hardly need refutation. We recognize the absolute right of every citizen to cast his vote for any candidate and with any party that he pleases. Far be it from us to attempt to coerce the votes of the workers, nor are we so asinine as to promise to "deliver the labor vote."

But we do, in all seriousness, urge the workers and all good citizens to consider most carefully and thoughtfully the attitude of the two great political parties toward the fundamental rights and principles embodied in labor's demands. Study their respective platforms, and then vote as conscience dictates.

On the one hand we have a Republican Congress absolutely refusing to enact the demands of the workers for right and equitable legislation and boasting that it is willing to take the consequences. Following this action of Congress we have the convention of the Republican party scorning labor's demands and adopting a so-called "injunction" plank which is an insult to the intelligence of every voter in this land,—a plank which declares for the continuance and perpetuation of the abuse of the injunction process in its arbitrary application to labor disputes.

The Republican party definitely lines up with the corporate interests of the country and defies the people to help themselves. On the other hand, the Democratic party endorses labor's demands and pledges itself to carry them into effect if it is put into power.

We earnestly ask the workers and their friends to make the choice which is in accordance with their best interests. We ask them to remember their moral obligation to cast their votes for those who will protect and defend their rights. If they fail to do so they will have to reckon with even a worse condition of affairs than now obtains.

The same number of the *Federationist* contains the report of the federation's Legislative Committee on the attempts of the federation to secure legislation in the Sixtieth Congress. The report denounces Speaker Cannon and other members of Congress responsible for legislation, and calls upon members of labor unions to "place the responsibility for the lack of remedial legislation where it rightfully belongs."

An Anti-Bryan View.

On the other hand, the *Labor World*, of Pittsburg, which is said to have a wide circulation among the union men affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, in commenting upon Mr. Gompers' alleged offer to deliver the labor vote to Bryan, says:

Political sentiment and predilection among the wage workers are just about as deeply rooted as are religious convictions, and we all know what sacrifices most men will make before they will act contrary to these convictions. It is, therefore, absolutely necessary that this question of trades unionism be dealt with from a practical point of view and with due consideration of consequences that will likely be entailed by the defeat of Bryan and his party, which seems to be a certainty.

Despite the remarkable action of President Gompers, every trade unionist in the country has a perfect right to vote for whom he chooses. No trade union now dares to presume to dictate to its members for whom they shall vote for President of the country. No matter how energetically or how dictatorially President Gompers may work for Bryan and the free-trade party, the rank and file of labor will please itself as to the manner in which it will vote, and we will be for Taft and protection of American industries.

The injunction question is not the only one at issue, and if it were certain that it is, the

disposal of it could be better left to Mr. Taft than to a wavering, uncertain, and chameleon-like politician like Mr. Bryan. The Democratic injunction plank is a piece of the most beautiful sophistry that has ever been handed to the masses, and how it has ever happened to so strongly allure Samuel Gompers is almost inconceivable.

If President Gompers desires to support a party that promises most to wage workers, he ought to consistently work for the Socialist party and Mr. Debs. Socialists, whether they be trade unionists or not, will not under any condition follow the advice of President Gompers, and we urge most earnestly all wage workers who are trade unionists to support that party which has made the country what it is industrially to-day,—viz., the Republican party.

Not for a moment do we mean to convey the idea that we object to President Gompers declaring his preference for Bryan instead of for Taft. To do so is his right, even though he may not be able to vote for either. But there is serious objection to President Gompers using trade union funds for the propagation of his political preferences, which at best only seem to be personal. We urge the fact that these funds were more or less contributed by persons who are absolutely opposed to President Gompers' political policy. This is a most vital feature, and is of sufficient importance to rend the American friends of labor in twain. How far it will go into this direction remains to be seen.

In the meantime, we most emphatically declare that the disposal of the injunction question may safely be left to Mr. Taft rather than to Mr. Bryan and the Democrats.

That Secretary Taft is a true friend of labor is certain, and all the untrue, ungenerous, vicious attacks that President Gompers or any one else may make on him cannot prevent him from continuing to be the friend of the wage worker. Organized labor cannot afford to have itself split up into factions on this political issue. That President Gompers is wrong in forcing this most ominous fight is certain, and intelligent wage workers will certainly come to this conclusion.

POLITICAL CAMPAIGNING IN ENGLAND AND AMERICA.

IT was a dictum of the eminent Doctor Arnold of Rugby that "the desire to take an active share in the great work of government is the highest earthly desire of a ripened mind." In England popular interest in politics is widespread, and can be dated at least as far back as the American Revolution. This interest has been intensified with each extension of the franchise and by each new agitation for parliamentary reform. Some machinery for election has been rendered necessary, but this machinery has not become so intricate or so elaborate as to overshadow the elections themselves and the questions and principles at issue, writes Mr. Edward Porritt in the *Atlantic Monthly*.

There has not grown up in England, what has long existed in this country, one small and interested class exclusively intent on working the electoral machinery, and another and enormously larger class, much more loosely held together, which does little more than march to the polls to vote for the men whom the smaller and more interested class,—really the governing class,—has nominated for election. Hence the wholly different meaning of the word politician in this country and in England. In this country my understanding of the word politician is a man who is closely, continuously, and actively concerned in the working of the machine, or who holds an office, or is a perpetual candidate either for elective or appointive office. The word has no such narrow significance in England. It implies a man or woman who is interested in political questions and principles, who is a student of politics in this wider sense.

Whereas in America many men resent being described as politicians, regarding the designation as derogatory to their dignity and social standing, in England no man or woman known to be interested in political questions ever apologizes for being a politician. Politics, with tens of thousands of Englishmen and Englishwomen, is chiefly an intellectual interest, put into active exercise only when they go to the polls.

An election in England, whether for the House of Commons or for a municipal council, is chiefly an educational campaign, in which the spoken and the printed word are the far-reaching and all-powerful weapons. Every candidate must make clear to the constituency from which he would be elected the principles for which he stands, and the policies in national or municipal economy which he advocates. If he has been of the House of Commons and is seeking re-election, he must justify the votes he has given in the Parliament that has come to the end of its term, and also the policies of the government which he has supported. He must also make popularly and generally understood the measures and policies he is prepared to support in the event of his return to the House of Commons.

Americans are at the polls much more frequently than Englishmen.

In municipal, State, and federal elections they mark at least ten ballot papers for the Englishman's one; for nowadays, when school boards in England are no longer elected by direct popular vote, an Englishman is seldom called upon to mark more than seven ballots in the course of six years. He may be called upon once a year to vote at a municipal election. Parliamentary general elections occur about once in every six years; and when a city-dwelling Englishman

has voted for the member of the municipal council for his ward and for the member of the House of Commons for his parliamentary constituency his duties as regards voting are at an end. He is never called upon to vote for the election of mayor or alderman. The choice of these lies exclusively with the city council. Elections of judges are unknown in England. All judges, whether of the local police court, the recorder's court, the county court, the court of quarter sessions, or of the higher courts that go on circuit or sit permanently in London, are appointed by the Crown, on the nomination of the Secretary of State for the Home Department, who is a member of the cabinet.

As nearly all local executive officers are appointed by the city council, in an average period of six years an English elector would not be called upon to vote more than seven times.

Though the English electoral system makes infinitely less call on the time of the voter than does the electoral system of the United States,—municipal, State, and federal,—and while it is the fact that the American spends much more time on politics, Mr. Porritt thinks "it will be conceded by any one who is familiar with political life and thought in the two countries that in England the general level of popular political education is much higher than it is in the United States." The general interest in national politics in England is no doubt due in great measure to the fact that it was not until late in the nineteenth century that the working classes were enfranchised. Had the parliamentary franchise in 1832 been made as comprehensive as it is to-day, "when every man out of the workhouse or the jail can exercise it," there would probably be less interest in the proceedings of Parliament. But the Whigs of 1830-32 were careful to impair as little as possible the political power of the governing classes; and thus only the fairly well-to-do middle classes were admitted to the parliamentary franchise under the Reform act of 1832. The Chartist movement followed, and in 1867 came the second Reform act. This, however, applied to the larger boroughs only, and it was not until 1885 that the parliamentary franchise was placed on its present democratic basis. Thus for more than a hundred years the working classes were interested in Parliament because they were looking to it to confer upon them a right they were most anxious to possess.

In describing the differences between campaigning methods in England and in America, Mr. Porritt says:

In this country, except for the campaign buttons and the banners that are stretched across the streets,—banners on which are displayed only the names of the party and its candidates,—there are usually few outdoor indications, even in a Presidential year, that an electoral canvass is in progress. In an English city during a parliamentary election, a newcomer could not get half a dozen blocks from the railway station at which he had arrived without opportunities of ascertaining who were the candidates, what claims they had on the suffrage of the constituency, and what were the political issues on which the election was being fought. An American who should arrive in Liverpool during a parliamentary contest could fully and accurately inform himself on all these points in a walk from the landing stage to Exchange or Lime Street Station.

The printed word, in its largest and most outstanding form, still survives in English electioneering, in all its glory and splendor of coloring. On all the bill-boards, from the time the electoral campaign begins until the returning officer's writ is in the possession of the successful candidate, are the portraits of the candidates, the addresses of the candidates to the electors, the record of the government that is seeking a renewal of its lease of power, the criticisms of that record by its political opponents, and the promises of the party that is seeking to dislodge the government and to take its place.

All other advertising disappears from the bill-boards during an election. The politicians are in exclusive possession. . . .

It is now twenty-four years since I first went through a Presidential election in the United States. It was my first visit to the United States; but even yet I have not got over my surprise at the complete absence of bill-board electioneering literature in the city of St. Louis, in the Blaine-Cleveland campaign of 1884, and at the meagerness and indefiniteness of what are called "cards," that were issued by Congressional and State candidates in Missouri at that election. The English elector expects much more than a card from his parliamentary candidate.

Americans behave with more decorum than do English people at political meetings, but this characteristic acts disadvantageously on popular political education. English political meetings are frequently interrupted by queries and by interjections of approval or dissent. These are expected and even welcomed by the speakers, for they indicate the mood and bias of the audience, and whether the orator is carrying the meeting with him.

Time and again I have been sorry for a political speaker in this country who has addressed an audience for an hour or more without eliciting from it any indication of sympathy or disapproval. This decorous propriety of an American political gathering,—such decorousness as I witnessed when Mr. Secretary Taft spoke for an hour to an audience of 2000 in the Foot Guards Hall in Hartford,—would chill the heart of an English political speaker, and result in a serious self-examination as to whether it was worth his while to continue his canvass.

THE "TRUE INWARDNESS" OF THE PORTSMOUTH TREATY-MAKING.

JUST as the Russian defeat at Sebastopol during the Crimean War produced important reforms, so the treaty of Portsmouth, in the opinion of N. M. Kovalevski, writing in the *Vyestnik Yevropy*, marks the new era of reforms, among them the representation of the people in the affairs of the Russian Government. Mr. Kovalevski has had access to a series of hitherto unpublished documents, among them extracts from the correspondence of the Russian representatives who conducted the negotiations with St. Petersburg and letters from President Roosevelt to the Czar. This material, the immediate source of which the author does not feel at liberty to disclose, has now, as he puts it, "lifted the curtain which covered the secret series of events leading up to the Portsmouth treaty of peace."

As early as the end of February, 1905, it appears, one Russian statesman advised the opening of peace negotiations, in the interests of the pacification of the country. He believed the continuation of the war to be a great menace, considering the dangerous mood of the Russian people. He feared a financial and economic catastrophe and that the foreign creditors of Russia might side with the enemy. The confidence in Kuropatkin's genius was shaken, and there was also little belief in the success of Rozhestvenski.

The sentiment in military and court circles, however, was for continuing the war. On August 7, 1905,—after the defeat of Tsushima,—the Minister of the Navy, Admiral Birilev, wrote to the Foreign Minister:

> It is not clear to me why we hold ourselves to be a defeated and destroyed nation. It is true we have suffered defeats on land and sea, but the loss of the fleet has in no way aggravated the situation of the army, which occupies an independent position and has just got into fighting order. Our army is not inferior to that of the Japanese, and we have learned some lessons through bitter experience. At this moment I do not know who is more in need of peace, we or Japan. I think the latter, as she has no means of continuing the war.

That Admiral Birilev was mistaken as to the financial condition of Japan is evident from a letter,—cited by Kovalevski,—from President Roosevelt to the American Ambassador at St. Petersburg, which was shown to Count Lamsdorf, and from which it appears that Japan at that time had on deposit in the United States £50,000,000.

After the battle of the Sea of Japan the peace advocates became stronger, and it was then that President Roosevelt offered his mediatorship, while at the same time King Edward and Emperor William made representations regarding the desirability of Russia's opening peace negotiations. The offer was accepted by the Russian Government, and instructions were issued to Count Muravyev, to whom the peace mission was originally intrusted. On account of Muravyev's illness Witte was appointed to represent Russia in his stead. Witte characterized his mission in the following words:

> It is my deep conviction that we must direct the matter in such a way as to gain the public opinion not only of all the Russian people, but also of the whole world. Only on such conditions, in case we are compelled to continue a prolonged war, shall we be able, with God's help, to overthrow the enemy. As soon as America and Europe cease to give financial aid to Japan and to sympathize with her and begin to turn their moral support to our side, we shall defeat our opponent.

The question as to why the proposals for peace negotiations came from the United States rather than from Paris or The Hague, the writer explains by the fact that America was the most interested in the outcome of the Russo-Japanese War, as it had to a great extent supplied the means for conducting it. The great skill of Count Witte consisted in turning public opinion in the United States, which had hitherto been hostile to Russia: "Thus President Roosevelt, in spite of his great friendship for one of the Japanese diplomats, had to yield to the opinion of the American public, which transferred its sympathies to the people of a white race and Christian religion." Witte also negotiated with Jewish bankers,—Schiff, Straus, Seligman, and others,—to gain their sympathies, telling them that the oppressive policy of the Russian Government toward the Jews had met with criticism among Russian statesmen also, and that there might be important changes in the near future tending to ameliorate these conditions.

From Witte's correspondence we learn that President Roosevelt openly told him that in the beginning of the conflict between Russia and Japan all his sympathies were on the side of the latter, but that in the course of

the war his feelings began to incline toward Russia. The dislodging of Russia from the shores of the Pacific Ocean seemed to him undesirable for the United States.

Considering beforehand that the war was lost to the Russians, Mr. Roosevelt did not conceal his apprehensions that Russia might lose not only Sakhalin but all its Pacific possessions. He therefore advised the hastening of the conclusion of peace, reminding the Russians that neither the peace on the Pruth, concluded by Peter the Great, nor the treaty of Paris, which ended the Crimean War, injured Russia's military prestige or stopped the natural growth of its power. "The same will be true now," said he.

Kovalevski goes on to point out how Witte, having gained the sympathies of the American people, and only then, was able to conclude a treaty so favorable to Russia.

THE CHARACTER OF SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN.

TO think of Samuel de Champlain is to evoke a past of adventure, of action, and of sagacious energy; but, for all that, few in the hurried present think of him. Gabriel Hanotaux, writing in *Les Annales* (Paris) reminds the people of France and of the world that they ought not ignore the glory of the founder of a colony destined to become a vast empire. Says M. Hanotaux:

Samuel de Champlain, born in Brouage, belongs to the times of Henry IV. and Richelieu. By profession he was a sailor. His treatise on the sea and the good sailor is still known. In it he tells, in an engaging manner, what the seaman ought to do and to be. Champlain was taciturn and had little to say for himself. But he was active, brave, and prudent, and so humane that he endeared the name of France to the savages with whom he passed the greater part of his life. He entered upon his colonial career under the patronage of Mme. de Guercheville, a woman of little importance at the present time, but who was then the patroness of two men noted in French history, Richelieu and Champlain. This woman had determined to spread the renown of France and the glory of the church. In 1610 she went among the courtiers and collected money to provide for Canadian missionaries and to found a trade there in pelts and fish. The company which she formed was the first to work seriously for the colonization of Canada. Champlain, who had already made several journeys to northern America, entered the service of this company. On one of his exploring trips he discovered a place where he thought the company's efforts ought to be concentrated. Tadousac was then the center of the fur trade, Champlain passed Tadousac and pressed on to Quebec, the point where the river narrows. This was the modest origin of the future capital of Canada.

With never more than one or two companions, and often alone, Champlain went straight forward into that new country which so often reminded him of the land of France,—"the prairies, the groves, the corn and barley fields, the tobacco fields, and the bushy growths of billberry and raspberry."

From north to south, from east to west, he traveled. He ascended the St. Lawrence, passed the rapids, and fixed the sites of the great cities to be, Montreal and Ottawa. He came to a lake that appeared as a great inland sea, Lake Ontario; then to another, Huron; then, turning toward the south,—"toward Virginia,"—he found still another lake and gave it his own name.

But the north pleased him best. It was the land of the fine furs. All the commerce of the east came from it. Champlain knew that up there there were unknown lands. He knew that by marching straight onward in that direction he would find the sea. At that moment he cherished the plan of all explorers of those regions: he hoped to find to the north a sea route connecting Europe with China and the East Indies. He lacked means to carry out his plans, but he set the problem before the world.

To our minds Champlain was something more than an explorer; he was a statesman and the founder of an empire. Turning his attention toward the south, he guessed the future of the immense countries then seen but dimly. He cherished the plan of uniting the inland country and all the establishments founded by the French at different points of North America. He saw that the succession of great lakes that he had discovered would be of incalculable importance in making connections with the mighty rivers running south. His aim was to join Canada to Louisiana and Florida. Twenty times Champlain made the voyage across the Atlantic, going and coming on the little boats used by the hardy mariners of those days. When in France he stormed heaven and earth with his projects. He interested Richelieu, but the Cardinal was busy with national troubles and with Rochelle. The establishments in the new France were given over to England and restored to France only through the direct personal intervention of Champlain. To him was due the credit of delaying the error accomplished a century later. The colony founded and defended by Champlain flourished and developed. Until 1635 his efforts were furthered by Richelieu, and these two earnest men, working together, built up the colony beyond the sea.

THE PHENOMENAL INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT OF SWEDEN.

THE so-called "poor" country of Sweden has of late years experienced such an extraordinary economic expansion that, according to Mr. John G. Leigh, in the *Engineering Magazine*, the ordinary laws of progress fail to supply adequate explanation of the phenomenon. A new spirit of enterprise has taken hold of the nation, and this is based mainly upon recognition "of the riches which still lie fettered in the hearts of the mountains," and of wealth which "is running to waste in its abundant waterfalls." There was a time when Sweden held the foremost place among the nations as regards the production of iron and copper, and, "although it long since lost this dominant position, the people have always maintained, both in mining and metallurgy, the highest of technical standards." An idea of the progress during recent years may be gained from the following figures:



TROLLHÄTTA FALLS: THE SITE OF A PROPOSED HYDRO-ELECTRIC STATION.

ORES AND MINERALS MINED (IN METRIC TONS OF 2,204 POUNDS).

	Average, 1871-75.	Average, 1896-00.	1905.
Iron	795,263	2,294,760	4,365,967
Iron pyrites	.....	450	20,762
Coal	50,396	235,626	332,384
Copper	44,273	23,590	39,255
Zinc	30,539	57,701	56,885

Whereas in the period 1871-'75 the average annual production of ores and minerals (except stone) was 939,092 tons, in 1907 it considerably exceeded 5,000,000 tons. Also, the number of persons employed in the mining and metal industries had increased in the same time to 200,000.

Rather more than half of the land area of Sweden, or about 52,000,000 acres, is covered with timber, and on this fact hinges the development of the iron industry, for the fuel used is principally charcoal and wood. Of Swedish exports, more than one-half is to be credited to forest products,—unwrought and wrought timber, pulp, and paper. Sweden's forest resources are superior in value and extent to those of any European country except Finland; and wise legislation of recent years

decrees that no timber shall be exported or sawn up unless the trunk at a certain height is of specified diameter; that for every tree cut another shall take its place, and that, after lumbering, the ground shall be treated in such way that the regrowth of wood is not endangered.

In 1905 the exports associated with the forest resources, including wood-pulp, paper, matches, and joiners' wares, approximated a total of $65,000,000.

Canals and waterways are important factors in the development of most countries, and especially is this the case with Sweden. The proposed enlargement of the Göta and Trollhätta canals, if carried into effect, cannot fail to have an enormous influence in stimulating national industries.

One result of the industrial development of Sweden has been that the town population has increased more rapidly than that of the rural districts. In the larger towns the rise in the value of real estate has been remarkable. In Stockholm, for instance, the gross ratable value of property, which stood at

$7,500,000 in 1859, had increased in 1906 to $304,345,000. As a consequence, the rent of an artisan's dwelling is more than double that ruling in the United States. The population of the capital has increased from 93,000 in 1859 to 380,000 at the present time. Within the same period the population of Gothenburg has increased sixfold.

Prior to 1894 there was a volume of emigration which neutralized the natural increase of population; since the development of the national industries, however, emigration has sunk to a relatively low point, and the growth of population has compared favorably with that of the whole of Europe.

It will surprise many persons, Mr. Leigh thinks, to learn "that it is only within the past fifty years that Sweden has possessed mechanical works and foundries as we to-day understand these terms."

Such works as existed or were built in the second half of the last century devoted themselves in the main to repairing or furnishing coarser castings for agricultural and factory wants. Then, gradually, in order to give the small staffs regular employment, special manufactures were introduced, but, for a long time, only of such articles as were required in the country or in the immediate neighborhood of the works. To-day the outlook is vastly different. Compensation for the lack of coal has been found in the ever-increasing use of waterfalls; many of the older works have been enlarged and modernized, and to their number have been added scores of establishments equipped with the most suitable machinery, and conducted on the newest and best approved lines.

Of the many establishments visited by Mr. Leigh and described by him in his paper we have only sufficient space to notice those which have been founded on Swedish inventions or have been active in securing recognition abroad of the Swede's reputation for technical skill.

Sweden has long been noted for machines and implements for dairy work. The annual value of her manufactures of such articles is now about $3,000,000, and of this output about seven-eighths is exported. The largest establishment devoted to this industry is that of the Separator Company, Limited, of Stockholm, which employs more than 1200 highly skilled workmen. Another manufacture in which Sweden has secured a high position is that of scientific instruments,—surgical, mathematical, physical, etc.



GENERAL VIEW OF THE SANDVIKEN IRON WORKS.

Whereas during the twenty years ended in 1880 the annual value of exports averaged but £1000 ($5000), it has now risen to about £165,000 ($825,000). In no country probably have magnetic instruments been used so long and with better effect for the discovery of ores and for preliminary exploring work.

The practicability of transforming water-power into electrical energy and conveying it in this form over long distanes has for some years been demonstrated in Sweden, and now there are few large establishments that do not rely upon electricity, wholly or in part, for motive power. The largest electrical works in Sweden are those of the General Electric Company of Sweden, at Vesteras. Among their most notable productions have been "the great rolling-mill motor of 600 horsepower at Fagersta, large alternating-current machines for the Marconi Wireless Company, and generators for a tension of 20,000 volts direct on the armature supplied to the Stockholm electricity works.

Other extensive mechanical works are springing up each year. In 1906 as many as 761 companies were formed, with an aggregate paid-up capital of over $21,000,000.

The most perfect type of manufacturing center in Sweden is Eskilstuna, the seat of the so-called Eskilstuna industry.

In 1771 Eskilstuna was founded as a "free town," the charter providing

that every one who settled within its territory should occupy himself for a livelihood in the working of iron or other metal, enjoy exemption from the capitation tax and customs duties, and have the right of using the urban water-works for a small fee. . . . Johan Teofron Munktell established in Eskilstuna a small workshop, which he lived to see develop into one of the largest manufacturing concerns of the country.

Eskilstuna produces steam engines, boilers, pumps, cutlery, dredging plant, machine tools, etc. There are fifty-five factories, the largest of which is the Tunafors cutlery works. The population of the town, which in 1850 was 3960, is now more than 27,000.

The great iron and steel works and brass forges of Sweden are of special interest, the most notable of them being the Sandviken works founded by Mr. G. F. Göranson, in 1862-'63, and now, largely extended, employing 2000 men.

Power is furnished by sixty-eight boilers and twenty-four steam engines aggregating 3800 horse-power, eight hydraulic turbines of 700 horse-power, and 122 dynamos, the last deriving their electric energy from a waterfall some thirty miles distant.

The varied products of the Sandviken works range from tires for railway rolling stock to wire for umbrella frames.

Unlike Sandviken, Bofors, situated halfway between the Baltic and the Kattegat, has specialized on the heaviest class of products. The works of the Bofors-Gullspang Company "challenge comparison with those of the largest establishments abroad." Here Mr. Leigh witnessed "a furnace drawn and a column cast fifty feet long, for which fourteen tons of metal were used, for subsequent conversion into a nine-inch gun."

MUNICIPAL SUPERVISION OF ARCHITECTURE.

ON nearing New York, passengers on ferry-boats and transatlantic liners are often heard to exclaim: "What a pity it is the city does not do something to make the water front more beautiful!" "How ugly those skyscrapers look!" And in many a city throughout the United States, when some specially unpleasing edifice is being criticised, the remark is made: "I wonder how the town came to allow such an ugly building to be erected." To such and similar observations a simple and sufficient answer may be given: The municipality has, in most cases, absolutely no controlling power. The authority of the building departments is limited to the enforcement of regulations devised with a view to public safety, and the beauty or hideousness of the structure is left to the caprice of the owner or the fancy of his architect. To remedy this state of things, Prof. Frederick M. Padelford, of the University of Washington, in an address before the Washington State Chapter of the American Institute of Architects, printed in the *American Journal of Sociology,* makes the following suggestion:

I would establish the office of city architect as a part of the municipal government. This office would carry a very generous salary, so that a man of real worth could accept it without undue financial sacrifice. To safeguard the office from politics I would have candidates submit designs to a tribunal appointed by the fellows of the American Institute of Architects.

The city architect would have associated with him a council, likewise chosen by merit. All plans for proposed buildings would be submitted to this body, and those that were unworthy



MODEL GERMAN VILLAGE STREET, AS SHOWN AT THE DRESDEN EXPOSITION.

of the city would be vetoed. Of course the architect and his council would not use their office to promote any particular styles of architecture, but would welcome individuality in so far as it was in accord with the correct principles of art. In fact, I would have the office conduct frequent prize contests for various styles of buildings, in order that the architects of the city might be stimulated to their best endeavors.

For every building erected there would have to be an architect's plan, and in order that this might not work a hardship on the poor the office would furnish a large number of acceptable designs from which a choice might be made. For the plan thus accepted a nominal price would be paid, and this would be turned over to the architect who filed the plan with the office, and who would superintend the erection of the building. These plans could be used many times, provided, of course, that undue duplication in any one locality were prohibited. In this way I would prevent the erection of characterless little houses and the practice of stealing plans.

Those intending to erect business or office blocks would find the city architect's office particularly useful, for during regular hours of consultation experts would discuss plans with them. "The business man, his architect, and the city engineer would work out the problem of each building block together."

Another feature of the office would be courses of illustrative lectures before community clubs and high schools,—systematic courses of one or two lectures a month, running through the four years. Professor Padelford thinks these lectures would be very seriously received, for he is convinced "that the majority of people want to have attractive houses, and are eager to be taught what is good."

Architects would be licensed just as doctors are, and the city architect's office would have charge of the granting of licenses, "because the city would regard quack architects as equally objectionable with quack physicians or lawyers."

As far as the architects themselves are concerned, it is claimed that nothing but good could result from such a departure, inasmuch as they "would be protected against vandalism, there would be much more work for them to do . . . and there would be the enduring satisfaction of united and systematic effort in carrying out a project in which self-interest and altruism were happily combined."

In arguing for his proposal, Professor Padelford claims that "there is no other art that compares with architecture in influence upon the life of a community, that has such a strong claim upon public-spirited men, that demands such civic concern." To the assertion, frequently made, that a great majority of people do not pay any attention to architecture, he replies that

> practically all of the people are some of the time thinking about the character of the buildings that they see, and that some of the people are conscious of the architecture about them practically all of the time. We are very much inclined to underestimate the attention that the less educated classes pay to architecture. . . . The architecture of a city is a matter of supreme moment to its welfare. If the architecture is ugly, it is impossible to keep the populace sensitive to beauty. It degrades and vitiates the esthetic sense, and tends to deaden the nobler spiritual emotions that attend it. If, on the other hand, the architecture is uniformly good, it tones the whole community life.

Beautiful buildings exert a great influence on the lives of the inhabitants, for they add greatly to the happiness of people, it being "the normal function of beauty to make us happy."

The experience of happiness is always at-

tended by an expanding of the life, an enlargement of the sympathies, a fruitful quickening of the social impulse; and those familiar with the "model villages" insist that this indirect moral effect of beauty is very great.

With regard to the cost of his proposed scheme, Professor Padelford considers that $15,000 a year would cover it,—"an average cost of 5 cents apiece, the price of a plain soda or of a pair of shoestrings, when the city has 300,000 inhabitants."

The result would be a city of unique beauty, and a happier and more moral people. Moreover, architecture itself would receive a great stimulus.

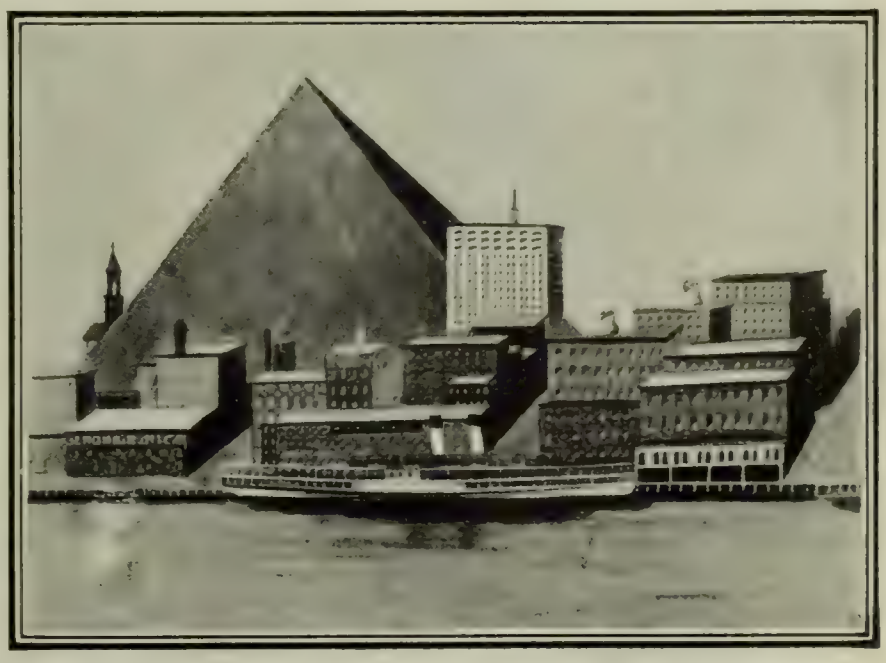
DETROIT COMPETING WITH EGYPT,—PROPOSAL TO DUPLICATE THE GREAT PYRAMID OF GIZEH.

IT is doubtful if the members of any scientific society ever listened to a more remarkable paper than that read before the Association of Engineering Societies by Mr. E. S. Wheeler, and printed in the *Journal* of that body for June. The transportation from Egypt to Paris, London, and New York of the obelisks which now adorn those cities would seem to have inspired that gentleman with the desire,—adopting a well-known colloquialism,—to go those cities one better, for the exact title of his paper reads: "Plans, Specifications, and Estimates of the Cost of Building in Detroit an Exact Duplicate of the Great Pyramid of Gizeh." The site for the Detroit pyramid should, he considers, be historic ground; so he has chosen the site of the fort that was besieged by Pontiac in 1763 and surrendered by Hull in 1813. The Gizeh pyramid is built on solid rock. "In order to have the Detroit pyramid equally stable it will be necessary to build a foundation of concrete down to the rock, which is here about 120 feet below the surface."

Only those who have actually visited the Great Pyramid can realize its extent and its enormous mass. The area of the base is nearly thirteen acres; the length of the sides is 746 feet; the height, 454 feet. Originally these dimensions were doubtless greater. Such is the building Mr. Wheeler essays to duplicate.

The Great Pyramid is built entirely of stone, three varieties only being used: A coarse limestone for the great mass of the buildings, a fine limestone for the outer casing and lining of the passages and Queen's Chamber, and a fine granite used around the King's Chamber. The largest known stone in the pyramid is 27 feet long, 6.66 feet deep, 5 feet wide, and weighs approximately 77 tons. The chief characteristic of the Gizeh masonry is the extreme fineness of the joints, to allow for which in his estimate Mr. Wheeler has doubled the ordinary cost. The material of the Gizeh pyramid is about the same as that of the backing of the Poe Lock, which was quarried at Drummond's Island. The limestone facing is also about equal to the facing stone of the Poe Lock. The granite facing is "probably not better than Vermont granite." On the foregoing basis Mr. Wheeler presents the following estimate of the quantities and cost of the Detroit duplicate pyramid:

Backing stone, coarse limestone, 3,313,000 cubic yards at $8.50	$28,160,500
Facing stone, fine limestone, 140,000 cubic yards at $57	7,980,000
Facing stone, fine granite, 2000 cubic yards at $100	200,000
Total	$36,340,500



THE GREAT PYRAMID OF GIZEH AS IT WOULD APPEAR IN DETROIT.

The Great Pyramid has been described as "the most gigantic work in the world, one which never has been and perhaps never will be surpassed." But Mr. Wheeler shows that, from another point of view, "it seems small, if not insignificant." From certain statistics of the Calumet and Hecla Mine it is found that 19,000,000 cubic yards of rock has been mined and crushed at a cost of $101,000,000, "equivalent to about three pyramids." The loss at the Chicago fire was $196,000,000, equal to about five pyramids.

Finally, if a day's work is worth $1.50, it would require 24,000,000 days' work to build a pyramid. The population of the United States is about 80,000,000. It is reckoned that one in five is able to do a day's work; therefore, there is available 16,000,000 days' work each day. It would take a day and a half to build a pyramid. If the United States should stop all other work and devote itself entirely to building pyramids, as was probably the case in Egypt, it would be able to turn out two every three days.

Mr. Wheeler himself describes his address as "a whimsical paper," but it seems to have been regarded *au sérieux* by some of his hearers, as discussion of it in the *Journal* of the Association of Engineering Societies is invited.

INDIAN TRIBES OF LABRADOR.

LABRADOR is a region concerning which first-hand information is comparatively scarce. The severity of the climate is not conducive to personal investigation, unless one happens to be a hunter or a scientist; and, possibly from fear of having their territory opened up to trappers and prospectors, the natives refuse in most cases to act as guides into the interior. In the *Canadian Magazine* Mr. Clifford H. Easton, who visited Labrador, has an interesting account of its principal Indian tribes. These, he says, are the Montagnais and the Nascaupees, both of which are members of the Algonquin family. The former occupy the Southern part of Labrador, have intermarried with the French and English traders and old *courriers du bois,* and possess a much better physique than their Northern relatives. The Nascaupees, though not so muscular as the Montagnais, are the tallest men in Labrador, many of them being over six feet in height. As a result of their contact with white traders the Montagnais

have lost many of their primitive traits and customs, given up to a large extent their nomadic life, and settled down in log houses, frequently furnished with many of the comforts of civilization.

While professing Christianity, they still adhere to many of their old superstitions.

During the past winter a young man killed his father in accordance with an ancient superstition that, if the old become demented, they turn cannibal. The father himself urged the deed, threatening, in a period of madness, to kill the whole family if his son did not comply with his wishes. The young fellow told the factor, with tears in his eyes, how he had made three attempts before he could summon courage to do as his father wished.

Their very existence depends on the deer. They pitch their summer camp on some high hill commanding a view of many miles of valley, hill and lake.

When deer are sighted an interesting scene occurs; the whole community, including men, women, and children, makes its way to the lookout, and, though the deer may be several miles distant, everything is hushed. The squaws quiet the papooses, the boys hold the dogs, the men talk in low-pitched voices, while the chief gives his opinion as to the chances of success

The stranger living among them is impressed by their honesty, hospitality, and sincere good nature.

It is among the Nascaupees of the Barren Grounds that the most bitter fight for the necessities of life is waged. Here the Indian may be studied in his primitive state, untouched by any of the influences of civilization. Their very name, Nascaupee, meaning "the ignorant ones," was given them on account of their lack of knowledge of the ways of civilization. They make only one visit annually to the trading-post, in August, descending the Kvaksvak River in canoes.

They remain at the post for two weeks, trading their stock of furs for guns, ammunition, tea, tobacco, etc., leaving just before the company's ship arrives. . . . I inquired of the factor the reason of this early departure, and learned that the Indians feared a priest might be on board. Several years ago the Rev. Father Le Moine visited Fort Chimo, and meeting the Indians congregated, started in to convert them. All went smoothly until the subject of wives arose. The good father forbade more than one wife to each hunter. This was more than the Indians would stand, for the best hunters have two, and even three wives. The number depends upon their ability to support a large family; so ever since they have carefully avoided meeting the ship.



A GROUP OF MONTAGNAIS INDIANS.

The women are short, thick set, and inclined to corpulency after the age of thirty, and all the drudgery falls upon their shoulders. The men are keen traders, and, unlike the Montagnais, need to be constantly watched while in the stores. They deem it very clever to steal, if they are not caught, and, if detected, they only laugh, and are in no way abashed by their exposure.

The deer is depended upon entirely for food and clothing. If the hunt is a success, provision for the long, cold winter is assured; but if it turns out a failure, many Nascaupees starve to death, as was the case in the winter of 1892-'93.

> The deer are dressed immediately, as they soon freeze solid, and remain frozen and in good state of preservation until late in May. . . . The refuse serves as a lure to wolves, wolverine, and other fur-bearing animals.

The principal garment for winter wear is a long coat of finely dressed caribou skin worn with the hair inside. The men make their own pipes of stone, and the women work designs in colored silks "equal to Persian embroidery." The dead are buried in graves inclosed by palings of rough stakes, and weapons and personal belongings are placed upon the graves for use in the future world.

The *Canadian Magazine* writer expected to find the Nascaupees,—probably the most primitive of the Indians left on the North American continent,—an utterly degraded and savage race, but he was surprised to discover them at once honest, hospitable, and kind.

CRIMES OF VIOLENCE IN CHICAGO AND NEW YORK.

THE inhabitants of the metropolis and of the Windy City, respectively, will read with considerable interest Mr. Maynard Shipley's article in the *Popular Science Monthly*, showing the relative safety of human life in these two great centers of population. It is sufficiently startling,—nay, almost incredible,—to be told that Chicago, with a colored element of scarcely 2 per cent. of the total inhabitants, is on a criminal level with Lexington, Ky., of whose population nearly 39 per cent. are negroes. Yet Judge Cleland recently declared that "human life is the cheapest thing in Chicago," and he further asserted that "this city witnesses a murder for every day in the year." This, says Mr. Shipley, would mean "that one out of every 5614 of her citizens is destined to be murdered each year, or, in other words, that seventeen in each 100,000 of the population would annually meet death at the hands of a fellow citizen." It is gratifying to learn, however, "as a matter of fact, that whereas Lexington stands first in the scale of American cities in respect to the ratio of deaths by homicide to total population, Chicago stands about eighth, with a lower record than San Francisco. Statistics show that crimes of violence are increasing in Chicago faster than the growth of population, but the increase has been gradual and no faster than in Philadelphia, Cincinnati, and many other cities."

> Of grave crimes in general, the increase of arrests was from an annual average of 243.0 per 100,000 of inhabitants for the three years 1901-03, to 269.1 for the years 1904-06. . . . This increase consists almost entirely of arrests for assaults with a deadly weapon and for assaults with intent to kill. There has been little or no increase in the proportion of arrests for burglary and robbery.

That the increase in crimes of violence in Chicago is due to the presence of a large foreign-born element of an inferior economic

and social status is proved by the police records, which show that whereas the ratio of arrests per 100,000 of population among native whites for murder and murderous assaults was 94.16, among the foreign white population the ratio was 146.65.

In considering the above statistics the fact should be borne in mind that the greater frequency of crimes of violence among certain elements of the foreign-born population does not imply an inherent and ineradicable viciousness or criminality among these unfortunate immigrants, but merely a lawlessness due to unfavorable environment and inadequate education, mental and manual. . . While crimes of violence have increased in Chicago during the past thirty-five years, the increase has not been so great as represented, and the alarming reports sent out about the "carnival of crime" in Chicago are usually without special significance.

As regards New York, sensational reports have been circulated during the past few years concerning "the terrible increase of crime." Contrary to popular opinion, however,

the increase of homicide in New York City has been very slight during the past decade, the year 1906 excepted. This agrees with the fact that the racial composition of the population has not materially changed during the five or six years preceding 1905. . . Taking a longer period, however, we find quite an increase in the number of crimes of violence, especially assaults with a deadly weapon, and, apparently, murder and attempts thereat.

Here again, the increase has been due to a racial change in the foreign-born population.

In 1880, when less than 10 per cent. of New York's alien population was drawn from Russia and southern Europe, with less than 3 per cent. from Italy, the number of arrests for the various forms (or degrees) of homicide was less than four in each 100,000 of the population. In 1890, when over 30 per cent. of immigrants were from Russia or southern Europe, there were nearly seven such arrests in an equal number of residents. In 1900 the percentage of aliens of this socially and economically inferior type had reached nearly seven-tenths of the total volume of immigration, while the ratio of arrests on the charge of killing a fellowman had been increased to thirteen per 100,000 of inhabitants. In 1906 the ratio rose to 21.51.

It is only fair to say that there has been no increase to speak of in the ratio of convicts to total population held in the State prisons for murder and manslaughter.

A large proportion of the graver forms of crime in New York is perpetrated by certain elements of the alien population. Of the ninety-one persons who met death at the hands of a fellow man in the borough of Manhattan in 1905, thirty-eight only were born in the United States. Of the seventy-one foreigners who were killed, twenty were Italians. Seven of the deceased were Chinamen, "who are, in this country, more murderous in proportion to their numbers than the Italians." The recent killing of a policeman by an Italian has disclosed the fact that at least 1600 of the foreign-born element of the metropolis have been permitted to go about the streets armed with deadly weapons.

From the accompanying table, which accompanies Mr. Shipley's article, it will be seen that New York is a pretty safe place to live in:

TABLE SHOWING THE AVERAGE ANNUAL RATIO OF DEATHS BY HOMICIDE PER 100,000 OF POPULATION IN VARIOUS CITIES, BASED UPON OFFICIAL REPORTS.

City.	Annual Average of Homicides per 100,000 Population.	Period.
Mexico, Mex.	70.72	1899
Girgenti, Sicily	40.48	1897-1899
Sassari, Sardinia	38.64	1897-1899
Lima, Peru	36.60	1899-1900
La Paz, Bolivia	33.71	1902
Naples, Italy	29.23	1879-1899
Lexington, Ky.	17.77	1901-1905
Kansas City, Kan.	17.64	1904-1905
Louisville, Ky.	14.85	1901-1905
St. Louis, Mo.	14.16	1900-1904
Rome, Italy	13.81	1897-1899
San Francisco, Cal.	9.00	1899-1903
Chicago, Ill.	7.03	1893-1904
Turin, Italy	6.56	1897-1899
Budapest, Hungary	6.13	1895-1901
Cleveland, O.	6.12	1904-1906
Genoa, Italy	5.83	1897-1899
New York, N. Y.	4.93	1904-1906
Providence, R. I.	3.59	1900-1904
Baltimore, Md.	3.39	1901-1905
Milan, Italy	3.20	1897-1899
Philadelphia, Pa.	3.27	1904-1906
Boston, Mass.	3.13	1904-1906
Venice, Italy	2.82	1897-1899
Newark, N. J.	1.50	1902-1904
Milwaukee, Wis.	1.45	1898-1904

In regard to the reputed increase of highway robbery in Greater New York, the police records would seem to show that no such increase has taken place. In comparing the number of crimes annually committed in New York City, it should be borne in mind that the population increases at the rate of nearly 113,000 yearly. As to the increase of highway robbery, the police court records merely show that the number of such crimes is far greater in some years than in others. This is true of all our great cities. We may note, for example, that there were thirteen times more arrests made in Baltimore for highway robbery in 1903 than in 1901; in Newark, there were fifteen times more arrests for this offense in 1902 than in 1900, though the average for a period of six years shows only a slight increase in any of our cities, years of frequent arrests on this charge alternating with few, or, as in Baltimore, in some years, none at all on this charge. The number of such arrests in New York in 1899 was nine, in 1901, thirty-four, followed in 1903 by nine only. As a matter of fact, New York is one of the few cities in the Union which show an actual decrease in the number of arrests for highway robbery. The official records show that whereas the annual average of arrests on this charge for the six years 1898-1903 was 19.3, for the three years 1904-06 the average was 16.7.

MARIA CHRISTINA OF SPAIN ON HER FIFTIETH BIRTHDAY.

WHILE the people of the great Austrian Empire were celebrating the fiftieth anniversary of the reign of Emperor Francis Joseph, another European monarchy found opportunity to commemorate a jubilee of the head of its royal family. July 21, last, was the fiftieth anniversary of the birth of Queen Maria Christina, of Spain, mother of the young King Alfonso and actual ruler of the Iberian Kingdom from the death of her husband, Alfonso XII., in 1885, until their son, the present King, ascended the throne in 1902. The occasion was made the excuse for a number of articles in various Continental journals on the life of the Queen-Mother, from one of which, in the *Deutscher Hausschatz* (Regensburg), we glean the following facts:

In 1875, after Spain had passed through a score or more years of revolution and civil strife, during which time various styles of government were tried without success, King Alfonso XII., who had been in exile for some time, was permitted to try his hand at bringing order out of chaos. He met with poor success in his efforts to reconcile and unite the numerous factions into which his government had divided. It is generally admitted, however, that his was a just and firm government, and it was he who granted a constitution to the people of Spain. While Alfonso XII. was only eighteen years old when he was placed on the throne of Spain, he was destined to reign but a short time. His death, in 1885, put an end to his labors after ten years of trial.

It was, therefore, a rather turbulent country which his widow, Maria Christina, set out to govern until her son, Alfonso XIII., should reach his majority. A daughter of Archduke Karl Ferdinand of Austria, she had married Alfonso XII. in 1879, being his second wife. They had three children, two daughters and a son, the latter, however, being born after the death of his father. This new-born child was at once crowned King of Spain and his mother appointed Regent during his minority.

The birth of a male heir to the throne materially strengthened the position of the Queen, although throughout the whole of her regency she had to contend with riots, revolts, insurrections, and worse, anarchistic and socialistic, both at home and in every one of her colonies. One after another these were put down, and on these occasions the Queen invariably showed remarkable mercifulness and leniency toward the responsible offenders. By this means, and in various other ways, she succeeded in quieting the different factions, one at a time, until when she turned over the government to her son on his sixteenth birthday, in May, 1902, it was a very different task from that which she had suddenly thrust upon her some sixteen or seventeen years before.



MARIA CHRISTINA, QUEEN REGENT OF SPAIN.

Maria Christina strove unceasingly from the first to elevate the outside world's estimation of her country, and she succeeded. Early in her regency a satisfactory commercial treaty was arranged with England. A year later her reputation was again strengthened through the elevation to the rank of ambassador of the Spanish diplomatic representatives at London, Berlin, Rome, and Vienna. Spain, too, during the latter part of the nineteenth century was a prime mover in several international exhibitions and conferences. The Queen herself was instrumental in granting universal suffrage (with a few limitations) to the people of Spain. She instituted reforms in the civil-marriage laws, in the courts, and in the army and navy.

While it is of course a fact that it was during her regency that Spain lost the

greater part of her colonial possessions, the writer of this article points out that during this time (in 1886) her country gained possession of vast territory in western Africa which may some day more than make up for what she lost. Perhaps, too, if the Queen Regent had had her own way things would have gone differently in Cuba and there would have been no occasion for outside intervention and the short but disastrous war with the United States.

Spain may have seen brighter days in former centuries, he says, but it is certain that no better or worthier hand has guided the reins of the Spanish dominion than that of the Hapsburg princess. During her regency the material progress of the Spanish nation was considerable. She carried on the government with ability and tact, and "won the sympathy of all parties by her virtue, sense of duty, and moderation in all questions."

GERMANY'S OUTPOSTS IN RUSSIA.

A STRIKING article appeared in a recent issue of the Cracow monthly, the *Swiat Slowianski* (the *Slavonic World*), under the title, "German Organizations in the Kingdom of Poland," by Stephen Gorski. After giving a cursory history of German colonization in that part of Russian Poland that is called "the Kingdom," the author gives, according to the "Handbuch des Deutschtums im Auslande" (the "Handbook of Germanism Abroad"), the total number of Germans living in Russian Poland. The Germans in the kingdom number, it appears, 500,000. They are the vanguard of the great German swarm pressing toward the East ("Drang nach Osten"). A more advanced guard of 200,000 has occupied Podolia, Volhynia, and Lithuania; while in the Baltic Provinces there is an outguard of 300,000 Germans. The shores of the Vistula and the borders are peopled most densely by the German immigrants.

Mr. Gorski adduces a multitude of details that throw a light on the planned work of German colonization in Russian Poland, and gives a picture of the conduct and aims of the German settlers in that country.

One of the principles of Hakatism* is that "where the German plow has passed, there is the German Fatherland." Actuated by this principle, the Berlin Government has taken a special liking to the outposts of the German colonists in the Russian Kingdom of Poland. Hence, it is doing everything to hedge these colonists against the influences of Polish culture; to preserve in them the German characteristics and make of them a sure tool in the hand of Prussia; and, in case of need, to turn their utility to advantage. And, in this field of silent action, the Prussian Government may be congratulated on the greatest possible success. It has accomplished its design. Down to the present day, the German settlers in Russian-Poland constitute a compact, distinct, disciplined element, ever ready for services. These colonists differ from the Polish peasants around them literally in everything, and they constitute a real German country in a land originally Polish,—a state in a state! Despite their century-long sojourn among us; despite the benefits they realized from the Government of the Duchy of Warsaw and later from the Congressional Kingdom of Poland,—up to the present moment, these colonists have remained an element bearing ill-will toward us, an element glaringly manifesting its Polish antipathies.

That the German colonists ignore the Polish population in the midst of which they live, that they look on with delight at Russia's war against the Polish schools and the Polish language, the Poles well know. But how does this immigrant body of 500,000 show its loyalty to the state,—the Russian state? Of the conduct of the German immigrant element in Russian Poland to the Russian state, Mr. Gorski has been able to give a picture in the *Swiat Slowianski* on the basis of the voices of the Russian press and his personal experiences.

A few years ago numerous articles were printed by the Russian papers on account of the unmasking of a clandestine information society existing among the German colonists for service in the event of a war between Germany and Russia. Among these Germans are men remarkably acquainted with the topography of places, and they were to render important services in the event of hostilities. It happened, however, that one of the colonists, apparently of a more cowardly disposition, surrendered to the authorities of his district secret papers received from Prussia containing instructions in the event of an aggressive war. This occasioned a storm.

The readiness of Germany's sons in Russian Poland for services in behalf of Germany becomes intelligible in connection with the unusually diligent work of related institutions in Berlin. For the needs of encour-

* Polonophobe movement in Germany, so-called from the initials of its originators,—Hannemann, Kennemann, and Tiedemann.

aging the pan-German spirit among the German colonists, who constitute the groundsill of the future "Neudeutschland" ("New Germany," as the pan-Germans love to call northwestern Russia), there is never a lack of Prussian marks. Scores of pamphlets for agitation purposes are yearly distributed among the German colonists; their visits to Prussia are facilitated; Prussian newspapers are regularly sent to them; subsidies from the "Schulverein" (School Union) are granted to the German teachers; and supplies are sent to the German colonists when there is a failure of crops. "All this, naturally, upholds, refreshes, and invigorates the German spirit in those of the race living under Russian dominion."

Besides the debt of patriotism, the German colonists in Russian Poland feel it to be their duty to encourage Prussian industry. All their necessaries, even household utensils, they purchase directly from Germany.

The article in the *Swiat Slowianski,* as well as articles in other Polish papers about the steadily growing German colonization in the Kingdom of Poland, in Volhynia, and in Lithuania, have already attracted the attention of the government circles not only of Russia, but also of foreign states. The clerks of the Warsaw courts have received from the president of the circuit court the order to furnish information about the persons of German descent who during the last five years have acquired land in the Kingdom of Poland. The British Ministry of Foreign Affairs, it is said, has likewise directed the British embassy in St. Petersburg to collect as quickly as possible the most exhaustive information about the German colonization on Polish territory. Finally, by order of the German Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the German consulates have received the direction "to collect and furnish in the shortest possible time detailed data concerning the number of Prussian colonists in the Kingdom of Poland."

THE MARVELOUS IN MEDICAL SCIENCE.

SELDOM have the wonderful discoveries in medicine and biology been so clearly and so forcefully presented to the reading public as in two articles in recent numbers of *Harper's* and *Everybody's,* by Prof. M. Allen Starr, of Columbia University, and Dr. William Hanna Thomson, ex-president of the New York Academy of Medicine, respectively. The former treats extensively of the discovery of the antitoxins.

Every one knows that after an attack of measles or small-pox there is no chance of suffering from the same disease for a long time; but the fact could not be explained until recently, when studies of the blood were begun.

> We know that every flower in our garden has its own blossom and gives off its own peculiar perfume. We can dissolve the flower in alcohol and thus obtain the perfume in an extract. In the same way each organism of disease gives off a substance which we call a toxin, which is dissolved in the blood just as the perfume is dissolved in alcohol. . . . By some mysterious activity in the body . . . there is produced in the blood a substance which exactly counteracts the toxin. It is as if we killed the perfume of one extract by mixing it with another. And when enough of this substance, which is called an antitoxin, has been produced by nature in the blood, the effects of the original toxin subside and health returns. But if the body is too weak to produce sufficient antitoxin the person dies.

After recovery so much antitoxin remains in the blood for months or years that the organism producing the toxin cannot take root and grow; and thus the protection from a second attack of measles is now explained.

Fifteen years ago the problem which confronted the doctors was:

> How to isolate the organism? How to secure the toxin? How to instill it in sufficient amount to stimulate the formation of an antitoxin? . . . How to prepare it for use?

These were questions which could be answered only by long and careful laboratory research. Then a curious discovery was made. It was found impossible to obtain an antitoxin for diphtheria from the blood of dogs or cats or monkeys, but it could be separated from that of the horse. After much investigation, the necessary patience for which is but little appreciated by the general public, all the details were worked out; and now there are antitoxins for diphtheria, typhoid fever, cholera, tetanus, or lockjaw, and many other diseases.

Dr. Starr cites some remarkable figures concerning the use of antitoxins, which the anti-vivisectionists must find sufficiently startling. Before the introduction of antitoxin there were in New York hospitals 6468 cases of diphtheria, of which 1962 died. In 1906, of 7444 cases, only 731 were fatal.

In London, in 1894, of 3666 cases, 1035 were fatal; in 1901, of 7622 cases, only 849 terminated fatally. Taking the world over, the mortality from this disease has been reduced by the use of antitoxin from 35 per cent. to 9 per cent.

When one considers the prevalence of this disease, one may safely say that Behring, through his investigations by vivisection and his application of them in the introduction of antitoxin, saves annually thousands of children's lives; and that his name, like that of Jenner, will go down to future generations as a protector of the human race.

Another discovery, as far-reaching as that of Behring, was that of the antitoxin of cerebro-spinal meningitis, than which few diseases are more dreaded by the physician. Wasserman in Berlin had prepared an antitoxin, but, when injected into the blood, it had failed. Flexner, of the Rockefeller Institute, New York, injected it into the spine, the results being simply astounding. Whereas, before the antitoxin had been brought into use, 79 per cent. of deaths occurred in an epidemic in New York, since its introduction the mortality has been only 29 per cent.; and this percentage will undoubtedly be much further reduced when the methods of application are perfected. This result, says Dr. Starr, "could only have been reached by laboratory research in connection with vivisection."

Formerly tetanus, or lockjaw, was quite common in the United States, especially in places along the seashore, on Long Island, in New Jersey, and all about the Great Lakes. An antitoxin has been obtained from the serum of the blood of horses; and now deaths from this disease are seldom recorded, whereas in former times hundreds of deaths occurred in America every year.

In India during the past two years the British troops have been largely prevented by inoculation from contracting typhoid fever; and similarly it is thought that cholera and the bubonic plague, of which thousands have died every year in India, Arabia, and China, are now under control.

The cure of myxœdema and the gradual extinction of cretinism in Switzerland, as the results of Horsley's investigations in London, are other instances of the marvelous in medicine. Dr. Starr concludes his paper with the following pertinent inquiry:

In these examples of marvels wrought by patient labor, of results achieved which save the lives year in and year out of thousands of human beings, and which will continue to do so for all time, is there not an ample justification for the sacrifice of the lower animals?—a sacrifice which in numbers does not equal in a year in the whole world the number of animals killed daily in the Chicago stockyards alone for our food, or the number of animals trapped for their fur.

Professor Thomson's article recounts the remarkable discoveries concerning the blood. As the result of the labors of Professor Nuttall, of Cambridge University, it is now possible to detect from a single drop of blood from what animal it comes, and how nearly related, or the opposite, such animal is to others.

Thus a drop of the blood of a walrus shows no relation to a drop of whale's blood or of seals' or porpoises'. . . . Instead, the blood of the walrus reacts immediately with that of horses, asses, and zebras, thus proving that he is an equine that no longer crops grass, but goes where he can live on an exclusively fish diet. Likewise, the hippopotamus is shown to be a modified pig.

Human blood shows no reaction with that of monkeys, but the blood of anthropoid apes shows a faint reaction with that of man. The marsupials, once such a great family, now reduced to the kangaroo and two other animals, have, it appears, not a single blood relation left.

The chemistry of the blood is largely controlled by the "third great nervous system in us, a system whose very existence the public has hardly heard of. . . . Physicians do not often mention it, simply because they know so little for certain about it. The old anatomists called it the Great Sympathetic.

In the presence of this great nervous system physicians are now like prospectors in the Klondike. A few fine nuggets have already been collected, . . . a specimen of which is the fact that, among other things, the Sympathetic *actually makes drugs,* or true medicine, whose presence in the blood is essential to life.

One of these is now sold over the counter like any other drug. The origin of this drug is from a twig of the renal (kidney) sympathetic plexus becoming at a certain early stage of development rolled on itself like a ball of twine. In time it breaks off from its parent stem, and being inclosed in a capsule, adheres to the top of the kidney as a separate gland called the adrenal gland. . . . These adrenals add an internal secretion to the blood whose active principle has been found to be a definite chemical substance, only 1-800 of a grain of which will uncomfortably raise the pressure of a man's blood in all the arteries of his body. This adrenalin, as it is called, is a new medicine with many valuable properties, but it is itself of such purely chemical composition that substances like it can now be made artificially, like artificial indigo.

Other great "finds" are described by Dr. Thomson in his interesting paper, which will well repay a perusal.

SOILED PAPER MONEY NOT DANGEROUS.

THE public is soon and easily scared. Sensational reports in the daily press of deaths after eating oysters,—and forthwith the juicy bivalve is forsworn. A certain kind of kitchen-ware is said to induce a particular disease in those using it,—and housewives are thrown into a panic, and at once proceed to get rid of the noxious articles. A prominent citizen dies of rabies,—after neglecting the ordinary precautions at the time he was bitten,—and for weeks thereafter every harmless canine is eyed askance, not to speak of hundreds of healthy dogs shot for the simple crime of being "at large." The latest supposed menace to the public health is soiled paper money. "Disease on Money!"; "Death in the Paper Dollar!" and similar headlines have from time to time appeared in the newspapers as captions to articles setting forth the tremendous risks to which the public is exposed. But "an ounce of practice is worth a pound of theory," in this case as in many others, and those who have needlessly alarmed themselves in connection with this matter will do well to read what Mr. Warren W. Hilditch has to say about it in the *Popular Science Monthly*. Mr. Hilditch's connection with the Sheffield Laboratory of Bacteriology and Research at Yale University guarantees the thoroughness of his investigations and lends authority to his observations. His attention was first called to the agitation for clean money by certain articles in the New Haven *Register*.

Reference was made to "Clean Money Morrison," whom I found on inquiry to be A. Cressy Morrison, of New York, and the origin of all the articles in the daily press and magazines of the country to be his pamphlet "Clean Money,—Can we Have It? If not, Why?" Inquiring of Mr. Morrison for reference to any work that he might have done along this line, I was referred to an inclosed copy of his pamphlet and circular letter. This pamphlet was "offered to a carefully selected list of 1000 of the leading newspapers and magazines of the country . . . and, with a view to the great value of simultaneous publication, a date of release was placed upon the article . . . it being presented for editorial comment, judgment and criticism, with the hope that all or part of it will be printed."

Statistics relating to germs and microbes found on bills and coins were cited by Mr. Morrison as "from one of the most eminent chemists of New York." According to these, pennies averaged twenty-six living bacteria each; dimes, forty; moderately clean bills 2250; and dirty bills 73,000 living bacteria each. As these figures were given as from the Research Laboratory of the New York Board of Health, Mr. Hilditch desired to verify them, and he was informed by Dr. Park, of that institution, that the only study made upon bacteria on money, in his laboratory, was completed some years ago. Dr. Park said also: "We have never found any evidence whatever of the actual transfer of disease through money." So much for the cause of the public agitation.

The frequent occurrence of diphtheria and tuberculosis specially interested Mr. Hilditch in attempting to find the bacilli of those diseases on money. He chose for examination the dirtiest money he could find,—obtained "from railroad, trolley, and theater ticket offices, banks, drug-stores, and individuals in different parts of the State." Each of twenty-four bills was brushed in sterile salt solution, under a glass jar, to avoid contamination from the air. With the sediment of bacteria obtained guinea pigs were inoculated. All of the inoculations gave negative results.

The numbers of bacteria present on the bills ranged from 14,000 up to 586,000, with an average for twenty-one bills of 142,000. There seemed to be no connection between the amount of dirt and the number of bacteria . . . the cleanest looking bill that I used had next to the highest count (405,000), while the bill that looked the dirtiest had but 38,000. . . From the observations I have made it would seem that the bacteria on paper money are non-virulent.

Mr. Hilditch cites Dr. Doty, health officer of the port of New York, who wrote in the New York *Tribune* under the headline "No Disease on Money—Foolish to Consider It as a Medium of Transmission."

It is self-evident that if soiled money is dangerous to handle, bank tellers and clerks would be more likely than any other persons to contract infectious diseases, but inquiry elicits the fact that they do not. As one bank teller said: "Money cannot be a very common means of transmission of disease, for if it were, there wouldn't be so many of us alive to-day."

Mr. Hilditch does not claim that his study of twenty-four bills proves conclusively that money is not a means of conveying infection, but he considers that, "after a careful study of the subject, the conclusion may be drawn that money constitutes an unimportant factor in the transmission of disease."

CAPTAIN HOBSON AS A WAR PROPHET.

CAPTAIN RICHMOND PEARSON HOBSON, who has been much in the public eye of late, by reason of his utterances anent naval affairs, concludes his series of articles in the *Cosmopolitan* with one entitled "If War Should Come!—The Outcome." Although in his opening sentence Captain Hobson says that "Never prophesy unless you know" is the soundest advice in matters of war, and disclaiming in his closing paragraphs the prophetical gift, he nevertheless does not hesitate to say:

Two things are clear from the great forces at work in the world: First, America is to be supreme on the sea. This result is based upon her two-ocean geography, her boundless resources, her aversion to maintaining armies coupled with the necessity for maintaining her own integrity in the face of the armies of the world now brought to her door, and her devotion to the institutions upon which her life is built.

Second, Asia is to revert to the Asiatics, and the white and yellow races are to be confined to their respective habitats, free from the deep instinct of self-preservation that engenders race hatred when two different races are thrown together on conditions of equality.

And he adds:

Whether America and the world are to go through fire on the way will depend on whether America will take time enough from her absorbing business and domestic problems to recognize in advance the necessity for her supremacy on the sea, and whether the European nations, in their scramble for empires in the East and spheres in China, will see the handwriting on the wall and withdraw from continental Asia without the struggles that now seem inevitable.

The Captain, as is generally well known, has made up his mind that war between America and Japan is inevitable. In the article under notice he indicates what will happen if the conflict is single-handed,—that is to say, without the participation of Great Britain on the side of Japan, and of Germany on the side of the United States. In such event, he thinks the ultimate outcome could be but one way.

No one doubts the determined spirit of both peoples. Both would contend to exhaustion. The final issue would be settled by one of the nations getting undisputed control of the sea. Which nation this would be cannot be a matter of doubt. The great preponderance in resources would insure the control of the sea and supremacy in the Pacific to the United States. Though this ultimate result would be inevitable, the price paid for victory would depend on the policy pursued.

If the American fleet is wisely held in the Pacific, war will be postponed until Japan has a superiority,—or thinks she has,—in her own fleet. That she is bent on gaining this superiority in a few years is evidenced by her ambitious program, which proposes nine great ships of the new types. The only course open to America is to hasten the completion of the *South Carolina, Michigan, Delaware,* and *North Dakota,* and the two battleships recently authorized. The possible outcome of the conflict is thus outlined:

If America won in the first general engagement, the war would be over; but if Japan, through a superior fleet, should destroy our present fleet in the Pacific, her control of the sea would not be permanent, for her fleet would be largely consumed in winning the victory, and our new ships would appear to contest with what remained.

Having only temporary control of the sea, Japan could only occupy our island possessions and raid our Pacific Coast. The difficulties of these raids would be enormously increased if we held Hawaii. Therefore, in addition to holding our fleet in the Pacific, we should hasten the establishment of a base at Pearl Harbor and the occupation of the Hawaiian Islands by the chief strength of our army. It would be futile to try to hold the Philippine Islands. If . . . Japan had time to repair her injured fleet, and our new fleet, upon arrival, foolishly crossed the ocean and met disaster, then Japan would come into permanent control of the sea, and the Pacific Coast would be invaded in force. Our nation would be turned into an army, but only reverses could attend attempts to dislodge the Japanese in full control of the slope from the coast to the mountains.

America would then have to build quickly a new fleet of great preponderance and send it around; Hawaii would be recovered; a great expedition would be sent against the Philippines, and an even greater expedition would be sent against Japan itself. The latter

would take Formosa en route, cut off Japanese communication with the mainland, and liberate Manchuria, Liao-tung, and Korea. America that opened Japan would then shut her up again.

Captain Hobson thinks that in case we withdraw our present fleet from the Pacific, war will not long be postponed, and that by reason of the temporary control of the Pacific, thus relinquished to her, Japan would only await the creation of a pretext to begin war.

All the foregoing is based on the assumption that the contest would be confined to the two countries. Japan, however, is fully aware of the magnitude of American resources, "and it must be assumed that she

is at least planning to draw upon other than her own. If, for instance, Japan were able to tap the resources of China," the ultimate victory of America would be placed in doubt.

America's main hope would lie in outstripping her adversary in shipbuilding, thus creating a fleet through which Japan could be isolated and cut off from extracting the aid of China. . . . If Japan comes directly or indirectly to control the resources of China, and is given time enough to make them effective, even America's great resources would be inadequate to contest the control of the sea. The Pacific would then be lost permanently.

On the Anglo-Japanese alliance Captain Hobson has this to say:

The British are compelled to court an alliance with the Japanese, for the British Empire today is at the mercy of Japan. In the fullness of time, after Japan has worked the British as long as they are useful, the unrest in India will come to a head, Japan will co-operate with the native population, and India will be lost. An attempt to hold it will only drain the resources of the British Empire in vain. The only hope for Australasia and Canada to escape subjugation by Japan will lie in America's gaining control of the sea in the Pacific. Until America does gain this control it is vain to hope to detach the British from their unnatural alliance with the yellow man.



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HON. RICHMOND PEARSON HOBSON.

France, with territory in Cochin-China, and Germany, anxious to retain Kiao-Chau, are, of course, likely to be participants in the struggle; and "with the development of the war into a possible ultimate gathering of the white men and the yellow men in a struggle for the supremacy of the world the problem becomes unfathomable."

GERMAN LUTHERANISM AND RADICALISM.

ONE of the telltale straws indicating whither things are drifting in present-day Germany is the Evangelical-Social Society of Saxony, a ministerial organization formed with the avowed purpose of putting an end to the hostile attitude of the Lutheran Church toward all radical ideas in politics, and particularly toward anything related to socialism. It is now four years since this society was formed with a membership of fifty. Since then the number of its members has grown to 350, and its influence within the Kingdom of Saxony, both in clerical circles and among the working-classes, has become a potent social factor. According to an article in the *Social Tidskrift* (Stockholm), based on a special study made of the above-mentioned organization by a Swedish social-worker, it is to be hoped that the wholesome effect of its efforts will go far to inaugurate a new and better understanding between the forces on either side of the dividing line.

Two facts seem to have been principally instrumental in bringing forth this society, which proposes to end the supposedly irreconcilable antagonism between the church and the democracy.

The first of these facts was the return of twenty-two Socialists out of twenty-three members of the Reichstag elected from Saxony in 1903. The other fact was a violent attack made on the striking workers of Crimmitschau by a prominent Saxon clergyman, and the subsequent approval of his attack by the Pastoral Conference of the district. That this attack at the time mirrored not only the general attitude of a majority of the clergy, but also the attitude which the government wanted the individual clergymen to take, may be safely assumed. It was, therefore, a very courageous act on the part of those who soon afterward undertook to prove that the attitude in question was not that of the entire ministerial body.

Conditions over there are so different from

here that it must always be difficult for Americans to gauge the amount of bravery and independence required of a German pastor in order to allow him to show any kind of friendliness toward radical political ideas. He is a government official liable to discharge, and so far almost every German minister leaning toward Socialism has found his clerical career mercilessly cut off. Nor did the founders of the Evangelical-Social Society dream for a moment of announcing open allegiance to the Social-Democratic party. Such a policy would have been suicidal. All they could do and all that most of them wanted to do was to demand impartiality on the part of the church toward all political ideas and parties. The declaration of intentions adopted by the initial meeting is quoted as follows in the *Social Tidskrift:*

We believe that not a restriction of the workers' right to combine, but an extension of it, is prescribed by justice and, therefore, also by the principles of Christianity. We hope that, in a near future, and for evangelical and moral reasons, a decrease in the working-hours may be obtained for our workmen in a legal way, and for the materialization of this hope we solicit the moral support of the Evangelical Church. As Christians we maintain a true reconciliation of the classes cannot be reached until it is realized by all parties that in all social antagonism and struggle the final word should be based not on a trial of strength, but rather on a sense of justice and of common solidarity.

The society has been working largely through literature, lectures, and public meetings. It seems to have overcome the suspicions with which its first overtures were received by the workers, and now all meetings held under its auspices are filled to overflowing. The members are working in two directions, trying to make either one of the opposed side see the rights of the other. But the principal part of its efforts, however, remain directed toward securing a juster view on the workers' cause among the educated classes. As is so often the case in undertakings of this kind, those doing the work have gained most, especially through a broadening and deepening of their views.

RUSKIN COLLEGE: AN EDUCATIONAL EXPERIMENT.

OF the developments full of a great hope for the national life of the future now taking place at Oxford not the least interesting is that represented by Ruskin College, an account of which, by Mr. Charles Sydney Buxton, appears in the *Cornhill Magazine* for August. Founded in 1899, this unique institution, while not officially a part of the university, has a very real personal connection with it. It aims to train and develop the intellect of those who are, or will be, leaders of working-class opinion; and many of its members are secretaries and presidents of local trade unions, branches, and district committees of national societies and trade councils. There are other students, who are sent to the college by private individuals or who, at much self-sacrifice, pay their own way.

At Oxford these men gain their first chance of quiet study and reflection. . . . The average age of the students at the college is about twenty-four. There are men who have already had some measure of responsibility,—men who are attached to their own class and want to share their educational advantages with their fellow workmen. . . . The measure of the success of Ruskin College may be gauged from the fact that not a single workingman student who has passed through the college has failed to return to his trade. It is this feature which has insured the ready support of workingmen throughout the country.

The fees charged to the students have been reduced as far as possible, and are now £52 ($260) a year for each student, this sum including tuition, board, and lodging for forty-eight weeks. Last year there were fifty-four students, and this number cannot be increased conveniently until a new building has been erected. A building fund has been started.

The external government of the college is much like that of any similar body, but its internal politics are of greater interest. A "House Committee," in which the supreme control is vested, administers the details of the curriculum, and has general control over questions of internal administration also.

Much of the latter is, however, delegated to what is known as the "House Meeting," which is a primary assembly of all the students. Its chief duty is the control of the housework,—scrubbing floors, cleaning lamps, washing up, etc.,—all of which is done by the students themselves. Besides materially reducing the cost of living at the college, these household duties make the students realize as they never did before exactly what they expect their wives to do.

Only one important domestic duty has been taken out of the hands of the amateurs,—namely, the cooking.

As a rule, students attend for one year only, which means forty-eight weeks of study,

the college being closed only for four weeks annually.

First and foremost, the student is taught a sound political economy, supplemented and illustrated by a sketch of industrial history. He is also taught the history, principle, and working of political institutions in Great Britain and the Colonies. Finally, the whole is brought into a proper proportion by a course in social science and social ethics. Grammar and logic form subordinate, though not less fundamentally important, subjects.

For the assistance of those who cannot come into residence at the college there is a correspondence department. The fee is 1 shilling (24 cents) a month. Since this department was founded, in 1900, more than 7000 students from all parts of the world have taken advantage of the facilities it offers.

Ruskin College has established the most friendly relations with the university. The executive controlling the college curriculum is composed of an almost equal number of university men and of trade-union leaders. The students meet the undergraduates on the football field and in the classroom, and although they cannot afford to join the Union Society, it has become a recognized custom to invite two of the members once a term to "speak on the paper."

Such intercourse is also stimulated by the social evenings, which are held every Saturday night, and are partly designed to throw the students and undergraduates together, which makes an easy relationship possible. Coffee, singing, and conversation are followed by a short lecture on any subject from "St. Francis" to "Nationality in the Nineteenth Century." The lecture is followed by a short informal debate and more conversation. Sometimes, when the topic of the address has been more than usually interesting, the gathering seems as if it would never break up.

In the modern state each man must be trained specially for the duties of his particular sphere in life, but there must be some connecting link between the individuals; this common band is education in citizenship, and this is what Ruskin College tries to give.

As was to be expected, the ideal of the college has been the subject of misconstruction and satire. An undergraduate orator once described the college as "an educational sausage machine for the turning out of labor agitators," and *Punch* described an imaginary visit thus:

"Well, you see," explained a student, "we are on strike at present. The trades union of undergrads has called us out, and we are not going in until the Dons give us our terms,—better scholarships and shorter hours. We heard they were getting in some non-unionists to listen to them, and I was told off to picket in the lecture-room. That's why I took you for a blackleg; see?"

"I understand; and are you often on strike?"

"Generally, in term time."

"But doesn't that interfere with your work rather?"

"Oh no, we are learning to be labor leaders."

A CARTOONIST'S VIEW OF THE CAMPAIGN ORATOR.

THERE are many cartoonists who are indifferent word-painters; and, on the other hand, there are numbers of writers whose descriptions of scenes and events are realistic to a degree, but whose efforts as artists in "black-and-white," if submitted to criticism, would have to be treated with extreme leniency. When the ability to delineate with pen as well as with pencil is combined in the same person the result is usually delightful, and the "general reader" has something to be thankful for. Mr. John T. McCutcheon is one of those who are equally gifted with pen and pencil, and one of his most humorous contributions to cartoon literature appears in the current number of *Appleton's Magazine*. The political orator, he says, is about to clear for action. He is preparing to "view with alarm" and to "point with pride." The electors will be called "Friends and fellow-citizens" by men they never heard of before and never want to hear again.

Politicians who have been actively engaged in playing poker for four years will suddenly begin an energetic and wordy warfare against the perils that threaten the nation. Congressmen who have slept through two sessions of Congress will have fifty-seven good reasons why you should vote for them again.

The ordinary professional stump-speaker so cleverly compounds his address of patriotism, persiflage, and promise that, when boiled down, it leaves nothing but a ringing in the ears. Out of the volume of sound there is only the hazy recollection that "this is the greatest nation of the world, that the grand old Flag is the best that ever hit the breeze, and that if the candidate is elected 'all will be well.'"



"'WE'VE GOT TO STAND UP FOR OUR RIGHTS!'"

"'NOW, FOR EXAMPLE, TAKE THE DUTY ON PRESERVED FIGS!'"

"'ARE WE A NATION OF SLAVES? NO!'"

An expert political speaker is a wonder. He can make a two-hour speech and never say a thing that he has to take back. He can wave Old Glory until the atmosphere is curdled with enthusiasm. He can hypnotize an audience into thinking that he has made a marvelous speech, and yet no one will remember a word that he has said. He can weave a word-picture that will make you think of the singing of birds and the tinkling of falling water; but blamed if you can tell what it's all about beyond the fact that you must rush headlong and vote for the Hon. James J. Jiggitt for State Senator.

A similar criticism may be made of the speakers at the political conventions. "The Flag," "Abraham Lincoln," "Theodore Roosevelt," "the predatory party," "the grand old party,"—are all trotted out, with suitable pauses for applause, yet hardly half a dozen passages from the speeches can be remembered.

The campaign orator shines especially in the astuteness he displays in dealing with difficult questions. Take, for instance, the trusts.

He will say that those corporations that obey the laws shall be protected, but the illegal corporations must be punished without mercy. The courts must be sustained and good judges must be elected. The labor unions are great institutions and do untold good for the workingman, but care must be employed in the selection of honest and faithful leaders. Nobody could find fault with a single thing he says.

In the same connection, one of the cleverest hits in Mr. McCutcheon's paper is his description of the campaign orator who is "tackled" on the liquor question. If asked to give his views candidly and concisely, he will take a deliberate drink of water and speak confidentially as follows:

My friends, I have been asked to state my position on the liquor question. There are many of my hearers who have definite views on this subject, and I wish to proclaim fearlessly my attitude on this great national question. This is a nation composed of many peoples. The sunny slopes of Italy have given to us of their best; the vineclad hills of the German fatherland have sent to our hospitable shores the sturdy artisan and thrifty husbandman. Our cities and farms are peopled by the bone and sinew of Europe's best. This is a country of equal opportunity and equal privilege. It should be governed with a due regard for the rights of all classes. If one law will not be generally applicable, then let us have two laws. Our policy should be a generous one, and we should strive to recognize the honest aspirations and traditions of all classes so long as such recognition does not work to the detriment of the national welfare or the negation of our established laws. We must uphold the laws and stand by the Flag! Every man must be given his rights! Every man is free and equal, and I shall promise to use my every effort

toward seeing that the humblest has an equal share in the prosperity of this bounteous nation. That, briefly, is my platform, gentlemen: equal opportunity, equal privilege, and the grand old Flag for all.

As Mr. McCutcheon says, the audience cheers loudly, because the speech sounds all right; yet if some one asks them the next day how the speaker stands on the liquor question they will be at a loss how to answer.

The campaign orator is an expert in the accessories of gesture and declamation. Who but he can invest with tremendous import the simplest sentences, as, "Now, for example, take the duty on preserved figs!" With what simulated indignation does he ask, "Are we a nation of slaves?" And how defiantly does he assert, "We've got to stand up for our rights." He knows thoroughly every trick of the stump-speaker's trade.

THE PROBLEM OF THE SOUTH POLE.

WRITING in *La Revue* (Paris), the Abbé Th. Moreux, director of the Bourges Observatory, remarks that for a long time it was believed that the earth was perfectly round. Exact measurements demonstrated that it was necessary to change its shape, and that the earth was really what is known to scientists as an ellipsoid of revolution, a sphere flattened at the poles. This is what we were all taught at school. But science proceeds by successive approximations. Now all is changed, and the theorists tell us that our flattened sphere, in the process of cooling, had a tendency to approach the form of a tetrahedron, more or less regular, a sort of four-faced pyramid.

If we glance at a terrestrial globe we shall be struck with the peculiar distribution of land and water on the surface of our planet.

In the Northern Hemisphere a girdle of land nearly continuous surrounds our globe, even with the polar circle; and continents occupy the major portion of the surface comprised between the polar circle and the Tropic of Cancer. From this great continental mass are projected in the Southern Hemisphere three vast protuberances: South America, Africa, and the lands of Oceanica.

On the other hand, one is impressed by the grandeur of the void which fills the Antarctic, or austral, zone.

An ocean girdle, analogous to the continental girdle of the Northern Hemisphere, surrounds the South Pole. The south polar land barely extends beyond the Antarctic Circle, and much of it is well within the circle.

The Abbé points out, in continuance of the analogy with the other half of the globe, that all the continents have the form of a triangle, with the apex toward the south, while the seas have the same shape, but with the point toward the north. Moreover, this triangular disposition is not peculiar to such great geographical unities as South America, Africa, and Australia, with the island of Tasmania as an extension, but is found in less important examples like Greenland, Hindustan, Indo-China, etc.

Geographers have long been impressed by one thing: The antipodal disposition of the oceans and the continents. Nineteen times in twenty the antipodes of the land fall in the ocean.

One may not attribute this to a greater preponderance of water, for the actual proportion of the two elements is only as two and a half to one. Rather must we see here a characteristic property of the solid part of the globe. . . . Europe, Asia, and Africa correspond to the vast Pacific Ocean, North America to the Indian Ocean, and Australia to the Atlantic. Now this antipodal property of the continents and the seas is essentially that of bodies of pyramidal form; and one is thus led to admit that the earth in solidifying has tended to take the form of a roughly regular tetrahedron. The continents are situated at the apices of the tetrahedron; the seas are its faces.

After describing the three known apices and three faces, the Abbé observes that to prove the truth of the theory it is necessary to discover the fourth apex and the fourth face. When Lowthian Green gave his ingenious theory to the scientific world, polar explorations had not afforded it any corroboration, and it was widely ridiculed, but since then geographical knowledge has been extended, the hypothesis has been maintained, and now most geologists accept it.

Geographers have long been divided into two camps, one holding that the north pole was occupied by a very deep sea; the other, that an ocean of comparatively little depth would be found there, dotted with islands or containing land more or less extensive. This question will doubtless be soon decided.

Continuing, the Abbé asserts that it is rea-

sonable to assume that the land of the Antarctic Circle forms a vast continent,—the continent necessary to the maintenance of the tetrahedral theory. This continent is itself surrounded by a continuous iceberg of salt ice having a vertical face toward the sea, fifty or sixty meters in height. This explains the difficulties attending Antarctic exploration. By a singular contrast, too, this region contains the greatest glaciers in the world and is at the same time the theater of intense volcanic phenomena. A girdle of fire appears to envelop the Antarctic continent, still further confirming the tetrahedral theory of the earth's shape, volcanoes always appearing on the principal lines of fracture on the globe. In brief, all discoveries hitherto point to the existence of an Antarctic continent, and it is to be hoped that new expeditions will ere long supply the much-desired confirmation of the theory.

NEW ZEALAND'S ALPINE TUNNEL.

THE recent visit of the United States fleet to New Zealand, and the cordial welcome which it received, lend an added interest to the account, given in The *Weekly Press,* of the commencement of the boring of the Arthur's Pass tunnel, which, when completed, will rank fifth among engineering feats of that nature.

Of the New Zealand group the two large islands are North Island and South Island, the latter being sometimes called Middle Island, and the small and unimportant Stewart Island being called also South Island. South (or Middle) Island has an area of about 58,500 square miles, its length being about 500 miles, and its greatest breadth about 200 miles. The Alpine mountain range descends along the western coast, and it is through this that the tunnel is to be driven. The tunnel will form the connecting link between the east and west coasts, and is part of a railway system which may be said to have been first projected fifty years ago.

About 1860, five years prior to the discoveries of gold, which drew an enterprising population to the west coast, the colonists of Nelson discussed the desirability of penetrating the country by means of a railway. In 1873 an act was passed by which the Midland line,—Nelson, West Coast, Canterbury,—became, as it were, part of the great public works policy which had been inaugurated three years earlier by Sir Julius Vogel. After many vicissitudes,—the line having been successively recognized and discarded by the colonial Legislature,—the road was finally taken over by the government, which decided to adopt the Waimakariri-Teremakau route, and this brought up the question of crossing the Southern Alps.

Surveys were made and completed in 1884, and a scheme entailing a summit tunnel with approaches on one-in-fifty grades was adopted, to the extent that the Midland Company, when formed, was bound to those conditions. The adoption of the grade mentioned necessitated the line being constructed high up on the sides of the mountains. . . . Fears for the stability of the line in such a position from shingle slides and avalanches induced the company to consider other schemes.

The collapse of the company caused the suspension of operations for some time. Subsequently, with the view of avoiding the construction of any part of the line on the dangerous hillsides, it was decided to pierce the Alps, and the present tunnel was the outcome. It is slightly longer than that recommended by the Dominion's engineers, and was suggested by Mr. Virgil C. Bogne, an American engineer. The length of the actual tunnel will be five and one-quarter miles, or with the approaches, about eight miles in all, to cost approximately $3,000,000.

The Arthur's Pass tunnel will, as stated above, be the fifth longest in the world, those that exceed it being the Simplon (twelve and one-half miles), St. Gothard (nine and three-quarter miles), Mont Cenis (seven and one-half miles), Arlberg (six and one-quarter miles). The locality in which the tunnel is to be built is a national scenic reserve; and the contractors are required to carry out the work in such a way as to cause no damage to the forest scenery, nor to disfigure the landscape. The tunnel, which will be straight throughout, is to be fifteen and one-half feet high and fourteen feet wide at the rail level.

The ceremonies connected with the firing of the first blast in the rock furnished a notable illustration of the fact that

"The best laid schemes o' mice and men
Gang aft a-gley."

The *Weekly Press* says:

To fittingly celebrate an event fraught with so

many potentialities for both districts the public bodies in Canterbury and on the west coast had united and had drawn up a programme for a ceremony that would have done justice to such a memorable occasion. Fate, in the form of a heavy downpour of rain, intervened and, by flooding the Waimakariri, prevented the Canterbury contingent from effecting a junction with the representatives of the west coast.

The best was made of matters. At the Otira end of the projected tunnel the Premier, Sir Joseph Ward, fired the first blast and addressed "the gum-booted, oilskin-clad, and umbrella-protected crowd that had splashed its way" to the tunnel's mouth, "over the rockiest and roughest thoroughfare that was ever dignified by the name of road." Meanwhile the Canterbury contingent, finding that the Waimakariri and Bealey rivers were impassable, decided to hold a celebration where they were and chartered a room for the purpose. One of the speakers, Mr. H. Quane, reminded his hearers that as 62,000 tons of coal and 28,000,000 superficial feet of timber had been exported last year from Greymouth (on the west coast) to Lyttelton (on the east coast), the saving in cost in favor of the railway as compared with the sea route would be about £32,000 ($160,000). Another speaker, Mr. A. G. Howland, representative of the Industrial Association and vice-president of the original railway league, drew attention to the fact that at Point Elizabeth there was one of the best harbors in the country. The largest ships in the world could there find good anchorage and could coal at a cost of 8 shillings a ton on board. By making Point Elizabeth the port of call and departure, the West Coast Railway would be made a direct line to Australia, England, and the rest of the world, and a saving of two days' time would be effected.

THE MOSLEM WOMAN IN NORTHERN AFRICA.

"MAN is superior to woman . . . because Allah has given him preeminence over her." Thus reads the Koran, and as this principle thoroughly coincides with the Mussulman's own idea, he adheres to it closely, and never for a moment allows the women of his household to forget it. Did he follow as faithfully all Koranic law with reference to women their lot would not be so hopeless as it is now. But, unfortunately, whenever a precept confronts him that can be turned to his advantage he does not hesitate to change it; so that in many instances the law as laid down in the Koran differs widely from that established by custom or common usage. In an interesting article in *La Revue,* M. Ferdinand Duchêne discusses the influence of Mohammedanism upon the social status and domestic life of woman. He vividly describes the misfortunes and hardships of the sex arising from the lax or selfish misinterpretation of the creed to suit masculine purposes.

From the time a daughter enters his household, much aggrieved, and under no pains to hide his disappointment, the Mussulman pays no attention to her, says M. Duchêne, but leaves her to the mercies of her brothers.

They, true sons of their father, convince her of their superiority, with many cuffs. When she reaches the age of eight or ten years her father wakes up to the fact that she is strong and well favored, and immediately calculates what dowry she can bring. Here is an example of the perversion of the law. The Koran says: "Give the dowry to the women themselves" as an offering of welcome, of joy. Custom, masculine custom, says: "Give the dowry to their fathers," thus making the transaction a purely business one. The child is practically sold for the highest price, and can be forced to marry by "*djebr,*" or "matrimonial constraint."

Yet she can also be consulted. Witness the cunning of the Mussulman. The young girl, consulted, is not allowed to reply. She either smiles or weeps. If she smiles, it is because she is happy in thinking of her coming position, and consequently consents to her marriage; if she weeps, it is because, while she still consents to the marriage, she is saddened at the thought of leaving her paternal home. . . . If by some chance she dares refuse, then the *djebr* is applied in all its force, cudgel included.

In the case of a widow or divorced woman, although it is necessary to have her consent, custom has overruled the law, and a woman of perhaps thirty-five can be sold by her father, brothers, or even her children.

Polygamy is extensively practiced among the Mohammedans, for does not the Koran say: "You cannot experience an equal love for all your wives, but you must not be partial. . . . Divide your time equally among them." His wives must needs "take

care of his household, bear him children," and for the rest must remain in cloister, or, if seen in public, they must be closely veiled.

Mohammedans believe they have power of life and death over their wives. Many and horrible are the crimes committed by them at the slightest provocation. One man, when arraigned before the tribunal for the murder of his wife, exclaimed: "Once let it be known that an Arab has not the right to kill his wife, and the natives will not want to marry!" This barbarism is contrary to the teachings of the Koran, which advocates kind treatment. Let a husband wish to rid himself of his wife by divorce, all the reason he has to give is: "Such is my wish." Whereas the woman must furnish proofs and witnesses in order to have any attention paid to her plea. It is almost impossible to find these, as no one whose word would have weight could be induced to testify for a woman. The Moorish woman has not even the right to seek a divorce for any reason whatever. . . . If her husband renders her life unbearable she can take refuge with her father. This is called "putting herself in insurrection." Then her husband is obliged to divorce her; but, vindictive and astute, he "puts a price upon her head." Before marrying again she must pay him a prohibitive sum. This forces her into celibacy, which is a humiliation in Islam.

A Moorish widow is part of the property left by her husband to his heirs. If they do not wish her she is thrust out of doors and left to wander from house to house, until at last she is driven to work in the fields. When, at the end, she lies down to die, she has no hope of eternity to cheer her last hours, for women have no souls, according to "custom." There would be nothing for women to do in heaven, for are not the beautiful houris waiting to receive and serve the elect? "Such is the condition of the Moslem woman, this being, placed in the second rank by the will of Allah, and reduced to slavery by the will of man."

And how shall we better these conditions? concludes M. Duchêne. Assuredly, to introduce Christianity would be too sudden and radical a change in the present state of affairs. Then, since the Koran is just, and kinder than "custom," why not force the people to adhere strictly to its teachings? Then, step by step, introduce ameliorating influences until a more satisfactory state of civilization is reached.

WOMAN AND THE PERSIAN REVOLUTION.

RECENT events in Persia render particularly interesting an article on the above topic by Marylie Markovitch in *La Revue* (Paris). Although written some months ago, as an editorial note informs us, the facts it presents remain unassailed. They demonstrate that Persian liberalism was not factitious. Free thought and democratic aspirations have taken root too deeply ever to admit of the retrogression of Persia toward the old tyrannical absolutism.

This writer, by way of introduction, gives some interesting details concerning the life of the Persian woman. The traveler proceeding to Persia by the Mediterranean route gains a strange and significant experience: he finds that the nearer he approaches his destination the more obscured do the features of womankind become. In Constantinople one may see Turkish belles coming and going, on foot, in boat, or *en voiture,* escorted or alone, and veiled just sufficiently to enhance their disclosed beauties. But when one sets foot in Persia one enters the most jealously guarded sanctuary of Islam.

Here all is grave of aspect, secret, premeditated. High walls of dried mud or of brick prolong indefinitely their monotonous line. Behind them, low enough to be invisible from without, are concealed the houses,—these also doubly veiled by their walls and their gardens. And in the recesses of the mysterious "hendérouns" are born, live, and die those whom the Arabic language designates "the hidden ones," and of whom, from the age of puberty to the tomb, no man, other than their master, has ever beheld their mortal beauty.

As showing how rigid is this seclusion of women in the land of the "King of Kings," Mme. Markovitch cites an observation once made to her by a high functionary in the service of the Shah, but of European origin: "Madame," said he, "if, on returning to Europe, you should hear any man,—no matter what his nationality, his rank, or his length of sojourn in this country,—assert that he has met, socially and unveiled, a Persian woman, you may tell him that he lies." This functionary was himself the dearest friend of a Persian minister who was the husband of a single wife. Nearly every day he repaired to the house of his friend to converse with him, while his wife was received in the hendérouns, or women's apartments, where she passed many an hour with the wife of the minister and her young children. *After seven years* of such close friendship, when the Eu-

ropean quitted Teheran, *he did not know his friend's* wife. He had heard her voice; he had seen her silhouette draped in the eternal veil; but he had found it impossible to know her in public.

The Persian hendéroun must not be likened to the Turkish harem. It is true that both represent the part of the house occupied by the wife and her servants, but the idea of a plurality of wives, which attaches to the harem, has no place in the Persian hendéroun. A Persian never introduces more than one legitimate wife in his hendéroun; and in cases where polygamy is practiced it is necessary to have as many hendérouns as wives. According to Mme. Markovitch, however, polygamy, even among the rich, has died out; and, the wife being both intelligent and good, it is easy for her to maintain over her husband a sovereignty at once unique and incontestable.

By a just return, the woman, exalted in her own eyes by the esteem of the man, has sought to comprehend her master better and to become more nearly his friend; to second him with all her heart and with all the force of her persuasion.

In the present movement among the women of Persian Islam, education has but a small part. Though intelligent, Persian women are with few exceptions ignorant. Reading, writing, with a little arithmetic, and the recitation of the prayers,—these constitute the basis of her instruction. From the moment that the young Persienne is old enough to join the ranks of the "cachées," she usually finds no other employment than that of assisting her mother in the care of the younger children. Considered as a merely frivolous being, the Persian woman, even when married, was for a long time kept aloof from affairs of the day. How is it, then, that she is suddenly found capable of understanding a liberal movement, and applauding and seconding it? It is because the desire to mingle in the national life has for several years past taken possession of her. More frequent contact with the West, the return of young men from European universities, more numerous and better organized schools,—all these things have excited her interest and aroused her curiosity. Feeling their own ignorance, many women have asked for their daughters the right to attend the course of the American school, or of that founded by Richard Khan and known as the French school. The majority of the Persian men have acceded to the request of their wives, *provided their daughters consent to retain the veil.*

Mme. Markovitch cites the remarkable case of one who discarded the veil.

> Having lost her father, she dwelt with her mother, as a European woman, earning her own livelihood, and she worthily represents the most touching personification of femininism in Persia. Born at Teheran about 1886, educated at the American school, Agha Koutchoulou ("the little *Monsieur*") spoke English, and played the piano and violin. Pretty, of that blond beauty so rare in Persia, she walked abroad unveiled, protesting by her attitude and example against Oriental prejudice. Invited to social reunions,—even where there were no other women present,—she took her place as a European, and neither word nor gesture ever caused her the slightest annoyance. She died of an affection of the chest, but some suppose this was aggravated by her brooding over the social inferiority accorded to her sex. The large and respectful crowd which followed her remains to the grave testified to the public sympathy for the new ideas of which the young girl had been the exponent.

The influence of Agha Koutchoulou on the women of Teheran seems to have been remarkable. It appeared that their lips as well as their souls had long been familiar with the words "liberty, equality, fraternity," and all the generous ideas that they convey.

> They became interested in reform; they spoke about it among themselves; they kept themselves *au courant* through their fathers, their brothers, or their husbands; they read the newspapers; some even sent articles which were accepted and printed; they encouraged the men by every possible means.

When, at the outbreak of the revolution, the Parliament proposed the establishment of a national bank as being indispensable to the security of Persia, the women offered all their jewels in order to take part in the provision of a national treasury; and on the occasion of the Turco-Persian frontier incident they declared that they would mount horse if the integrity of Persian territory were threatened.

The forward movement is not confined to the women of the capital. Those of the provinces are equally eager for civil and political liberty. One thing seems certain: although the veil in their eyes has not the symbolism of slavery which it bears in ours, nevertheless it already appears to weigh somewhat heavily.

> It is a touching picture this,—of a *veiled* woman demanding admission to a new life from which she would perhaps draw back did she but know what new duties it would add to her old ones.

LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

A FRENCH CHOICE OF AMERICAN STOCKS.

SOME investors benefited by last month's discussion of the English investor's prudence in distributing his money through different localities. This month some periodical literature is at hand suggestive of other "things they do better abroad" when it comes to taking care of money.

Americans who start out to invest often slide into more or less of a speculation. They forget their original object,—to obtain the greatest income consistent with safety,—in the fascination of somebody's opinion that such and such a stock is likely to "appreciate in value." They forsake probabilities for possibilities.

A large section of the French nation do not make this mistake. They are straight investors for income, and very successful ones, as history bears witness. Their method of reasoning is reflected in the attitude of *L'Economiste Français,* the financial weekly whose editor, Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, is considered the most eminent political economist in France to-day.

This journal has been calling particular attention for five or six months, in its regular weekly department on American railroads, to a certain class of stocks. In a recent number it points out that the *preferred* stocks of the Atchison, Union Pacific, and Baltimore & Ohio railroads are much more remunerative than the bonds of the same companies, although approaching them in safety. It concludes: "It seems to us that these three issues, especially the first, ought to attract many purchasers."

Now all these stocks are "limited." The holder of a share of Atchison preferred receives dividend checks from the company at the rate of $5.00 per year, and no more. With the other two the rate is $4.00. These rates may not be increased, no matter how prosperous the companies become. At 93, the Atchison yields the purchaser more than 5 per cent.; the other two, at about 83, something under 5 per cent.

Here is certainly a lack of speculative value. Atchison has never sold more than 15 points higher than its present price, Baltimore & Ohio 17 points, and Union Pacific 18 points,—that is to say, in prosperous times when investments in general were paying 4 per cent. or less, these stocks followed the general trend.

WHAT ATTRACTS THE FRENCH.

The attraction to the French mind is probably found in the feature of stability of income. The Atchison showed a balance for dividends in 1907 of nearly $21,000,000, of which only about $5,700,000 was required for dividends on all the preferred stock. Similarly the Baltimore & Ohio, with nearly $17,500,000, needed only $2,400,000 for preferred dividends. And the Union Pacific's balance of over $36,000,000 was *more than nine times* enough to pay its preferred dividend of less than $4,000,000. Finally, these railroads had enough left over to pay large dividends on hundreds of millions of common stock, besides many millions for permanent improvements.

To the foreigner out for income, such big balances are highly impressive. He is willing to let others speculate, *via* the common stock, on how much will remain next year after the preferred dividend is paid. For himself, he prefers the greater certainty.

Thus large amounts of American railroad preferred stocks are held abroad. Thousands of English investors are said to hold odd lots of Canadian Pacific preferred, which is limited to 4 per cent.

The remarks of *L'Economiste* might have been continued in some measure to apply to other issues,—Reading 2d preferred, St. Paul preferred, Norfolk & Western preferred, and Southern Pacific preferred.

GOOD INVESTMENT QUALITIES.

Such stocks pay the owner from 4¼ to 6 per cent. Their low denomination ($100) gives the average investor a chance to distribute his money over several sections of the country on the plan of the professional investors,—insurance companies, trust companies, savings banks, and the like.

Although not "active" in a speculative sense, all are quoted every business day on the New York Stock Exchange. Thus the

investor holding a share apiece in six of these issues and suddenly needing $75 or $100 in cash, can tell, simply by looking at the paper, which stock can be sold to best advantage that day.

High yield; a good grade of safety; small "pieces" ($100 par, selling at $80 or more) allowing the wide distribution of even a few hundred dollars; and ready convertibility into cash with small fluctuations in price; such are the features of the stocks which *L'Economiste* believes attractive to seekers for income.

Such quiet, sober habits of the foreign mind furnish the most admirable lesson to American investors.

INDUSTRIAL BONDS,—THE CONSENSUS OF OPINION.

OFTENER and oftener of late years, with the rising wave of new industrial incorporation and capitalization, questions like this have been coming up before bankers and financial advisers:

"My friend, a director of the company that manufactures such-and-such, recommends their new bond issue to me as a splendid investment. He says the company is earning more than twice the interest on these bonds. They pay 6 per cent. Mightn't these make a good investment for me?"

"They might," is the answer of experience. "If you trust your friend's judgment as fully as you do his honesty, you might put part of your money into these bonds for high yield with the accompanying risk. If the bonds are recommended by bankers in whom you have equal faith, and who have for many years been specialists in 'industrials,' then you have something sound to go on. Tell them whether you are dependent upon your income from investment."

Many investors, especially business men, dispute this attitude. It is only natural that a man who has made his living out of a certain industry should lean toward buying the bonds of some other enterprise of the same kind. He can understand what the bond circular is driving at. He knows the trade, its technical terms and its possibilities. He knows nothing about the railroad or street railway business. He stands up for the "industrial" bond.

Now when the industrial is a sound investment, it is as the result of just such intimate personal knowledge on the buyer's part. "Its purchase requires care and investigation beyond that of almost any other bond," writes Lyman Spitzer, a banker of special experience.

NOT FOR WOMEN.

Turning to an article by David Graham Evans in *Success*, the reader is told that "this class of bonds should not be considered by women, or for trust funds and business surplus." Mr. Evans supports his opinion by considerations which will be reviewed farther on in these columns.

A line of argument which he did not take up makes his case appear even stronger,—namely, that the laws of the most careful states practically forbid public and private trustees to put the money they control into industrial bonds; but that railroad bonds are largely admitted, and in some cases, those of street railways, etc.; and that the discrimination is a scientific one, apart from personal and local prejudices.

One finds that sixteen of the States in the Union have passed laws of real significance, regulating the investment of "other people's money" held in trust by savings banks, trust companies, individual trustees, etc. Some other States have laws, but they are so indefinite or so partial as to be of little help to the investor. The remaining States leave it to the individual judgment of the trustees and bank officers.

No less than ten of the sixteen most careful States admit railroad bonds; five, those of street railways; whereas industrial bonds are allowed in only three.

Moreover, in each of these three States the admission of certain industrial bonds seems due to such special reasons as the fostering of home industries,—not to the desire to round out a scientific investment plan.

LEGALIZED FOR LOCAL REASONS.

Thus Michigan confines itself to bonds of steamship companies in the Great Lakes under certain conditions; Maine, to bonds of companies actually incorporated in the State, and actually conducting their business in the State, and "earning and paying a regular dividend of not less than 5 per cent. a year"; New Hampshire, likewise, to bonds of companies incorporated in the State, located and

doing business therein, with net indebtedness not exceeding actual paid-up capital stock; and the bonds must be first mortgage.

In pointed contrast, seven of the ten States admitting railroad bonds allow those of *any* company, in *any* State, which pass certain fixed and excellent tests, showing the exact amount of security behind the bond and the degree of prosperity enjoyed by the company.

The eighth State,—Massachusetts,—also sets up strict standards for railroad bonds in general; but it limits the application of these tests to railroads in New England, together with nine "old-line" companies given by name (Pennsylvania, N. Y. Central, Burlington, etc.).

Of the other two, Maine favors bonds of "completed railroads" in certain States—New England and Middle; and Missouri, in like fashion, confines itself to the railroads of fourteen States in the Middle West.

The strongest argument of all would be that the eight States which have laid down the most scientific tests for railroad bonds, are those which, as a group, have gone farthest in the regulation of trust funds in general in the country. They are Connecticut, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, and Wisconsin.

AN INTRINSIC DIFFERENCE.

The thinking reader surmises that the most careful Legislatures of widely scattered States would not uniformly discriminate in favor of railroad bonds, and against industrial bonds, unless the difference between the two was intrinsic.

It is, and it lies in the one word *franchise*. Of course, the kind of bad management which wrecks a manufacturing or steamship or mercantile company may also wreck a railroad or street railway company. But in the latter case the holder of a bond, especially a mortgage bond, has a security which in the former case he lacks,—namely, his interest in the franchises, rights of way, terminals, etc.

The road must be run; even if a new company has to be formed to operate it, it must buy the franchise rights, and the bondholders with the closest lien on these rights get most of the purchase money.

But who can tell what a tariff change made by Mr. Bryan (if elected) might do to the earnings of steel or leather or woolen or tobacco companies—or how the fortunes of various automobile and motor-truck companies may shift as the result of new inventions? And everybody knows how a mere whim of fashion cut down the output of American bicycles from $22,000,000 worth in 1900 to $3,500,000 worth in 1905. This was hard on the owners of bicycle bonds.

The company with the franchise comes out ahead. Suppose the branch line of a railroad carries the products of 100 factories. Suppose ten of the factories shut down. The railroad's *branch* earnings may fall off one-tenth, not enough to cause the slightest alarm to the holders of the proper kind of bonds of that road. But how about the holders of bonds issued by the ten factory companies?

CAUTIOUS CONCLUSIONS.

Coming back, after this review of State laws, to Mr. Evans' conclusions, one finds them similarly cautious. He writes that "sixty per cent. of the industrial bonds dealt in on the New York Stock Exchange are bonds of large corporations, commonly known as trusts. There are few of these that can really be regarded as first-class investments, where principal and interest have more than a fair chance of reaching the holder on promised dates." He gives a choice from "some forty odd issues now listed on the New York Stock Exchange."

It gives one a very small field to select from if he is really concerned in selecting those holding out the best qualifications for investments of this class.

American Tobacco Company forty-year 6's.
American Tobacco Company twenty-year 5's.
Central Leather Company twenty-year 5's.
International Paper Company 1st Consolidated 6's.
International Steam Pump Debenture ten-year 6's.
Lackawanna Steel Company 5's.
U. S. Realty and Improvement 5's.
U. S. Steel Corporation ten to sixty-year Sinking Fund 5's.
General Electric Convertible Debenture 5's.

The 1908 reports of some of these companies naturally complained of current business troubles. "Yet none of these reports are really of a disturbing nature, especially to bondholders."

"Listed" bonds like these fluctuate in price suddenly and widely, owing to the many uncertain factors in each case. Therefore "the habitual industrial bond buyer can be properly put in the class of investors who demand excitement along with their purchase. Men of this temperament and with such demands will always be with us—so will industrial bonds."

WHAT STOCKS AND BONDS ARE WORTH.

"THERE is an old Wall Street query, 'What is a stock worth?' The definition is, 'It's worth what you can get for it.'"

Thus Alfred S. Harris begins an article in the *Ticker Magazine* on "The Value of a Market."

The maxim is more than a truism; it suggests a precaution that too many investors neglect, namely, to get a clear idea of the "market" for the stock or bond or note which is being bought. How many people are accustomed to purchase securities of this issue? How frequently? These things the investor ought to be shown.

Before commenting further upon Mr. Harris' article, it seems best to look at some actual workings of what financial people call the "market,"—meaning not a particular exchange or stock market, but the conditions of the trade for each given security.

A "BROAD," "ACTIVE" MARKET.

For instance: The Louisville & Nashville unified 4 per cent. bonds are legal for the investment of New York savings banks. That means that they are legal for any trust funds in the State of New York, and so may be bought by hospitals, guardians, trustees, colleges, etc. Also, they are largely held by trust, insurance, and surety companies, and the like. Thus they are said to have a "broad market."

Moreover, these bonds change hands with enough frequency to earn them the title of "active." As it happens, they are listed on the New York Stock Exchange. The quotations at the close of a recent business day ran "98⅛-98½." Somebody was willing to sell at "a half"; somebody else was willing to buy at "an eighth." Here is a "close" quotation. The concession of only one-eighth of a point ($1.25 for a $1000 bond) might be enough to bring about a trade. Evidently this is a bond suitable to the investor who may need to turn his securities into cash at any time. The market is so "broad" as to be independent of local or special conditions; and so "active" that the bond will be sold at little or no concession from the prevailing price.

Many bonds, even investment bonds, are much more active than the L. & N.'s.

A CONTRAST.

In contrast is the kind of market for the bonds of a certain independent telephone company in a Western State. The company was floated by a group of local capitalists; the bonds were sold through an appeal to local pride. Few of them are held outside of a radius of fifty miles. They are not "listed" on any exchange.

Here is a "narrow market" and an "inactive" security. It is evident that a local business depression, even if it did not diminish the earnings of the telephone company, might bring business troubles to many of the holders of these bonds. In such a contingency, the market for them might cease to exist, without any reference to the intrinsic worth of the bonds.

However, to be "listed" on the New York or any other prominent stock exchange is only an incident, though often an important one, in a bond's activity and the broadness of its market.

Of the Louisville & Nashville bonds mentioned, probably ten times as many are sold privately as on the exchange floor.

Conversely, many "listed" bonds are not actually traded on the exchange floor twice a year. Some underlying and other bonds of several large railroad systems are very "slow," though they rank in the first grade of safety and may well form that portion of an investment for income which need not be readily convertible into cash.

Now and then a small lot of bonds like these will come on the market to yield the buyer 4¼ per cent., or nearer 5 per cent., if they are very inactive. The investor with a wideawake banker may find such an opportunity.

Several such bonds, legal for New York savings banks, are the Chicago & Northwestern consolidated 7s, N. Y., Lackawanna & W. general 6s, Rome, Watertown & Ogdensburg consolidated 1st 5s, St. Paul, Minnesota & Manitoba 1st consolidated 6s, St. Paul & Sioux City 1st 6s.

Of course, such issues as these, although not frequently sold, are widely distributed. Being held by institutions such as insurance companies and savings banks, their market is often fairly broad.

UNLISTED, BUT WIDELY OWNED.

Likewise it is possible to find investment securities with a broad market though not listed at all. Many bonds of street railway, electric light, and other public service companies are very widely held by institutions

and investors. These are usually issues which have been vouched for by some well-known and successful banking firm or firms.

Then there are the stocks of many prominent industrial companies. Several large dealers in "inactive and unlisted securities," in response to a genuine investment trade, handle enormous quantities of such stocks. Many of them have been paying dividends for years and show as good prospects of continuance as many of the listed favorites.

Some of these stocks, besides, are fairly active. Borden's Condensed Milk preferred, for instance, recently showed the "close" quotations of 105-109; Royal Baking Powder preferred, 100-103; Standard Oil, 640,-650 (this difference of ten points really amounts to less than two points, of course, in comparison with a stock selling at $100); at the same time, others showed by the "wide" bids and offers that they were rarely traded in. Cheeseborough was 400-430; International Nickel, 90-100.

Particularly high grade from the point of safety are the railroad guaranteed stocks. Several houses make a specialty of these and can usually furnish the other party to a trade. Quotations are apt to be 5 to 10 per cent. apart.

Now to quote from Mr. Harris' article. He speaks first of the advantages in listed stocks:

> If Union Pacific had no regular market—was listed nowhere and there was no place in particular where buyers and sellers might meet, the latter would be chasing each other all over the country. Sales might take place simultaneously in different States at prices varying from 100 to 200; the man with ten shares for sale might have to advertise it in the daily papers. This may seem ridiculous, but it is true. For this reason, securities listed on a reputable Stock Exchange, contain an element of value entirely absent from those which have no regular market.
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> The very listing of a security indicates that the company has been in existence for a certain length of time and that its affairs have been examined by certain official critics, known as the Committee on Stock List, who have passed upon the proposition as being acceptable under the rules of the Exchange. The stock is listed forthwith, and thereafter has an established market at a designated "post" on the Stock Exchange.
>
> After listing has been accomplished, the stock's fluctuations are given world-wide publicity; thereafter, holders thereof may, within certain limitations, hypothecate their shares at almost any financial institution in the country; hence listing has the effect of stamping a security as reasonably sound and entitled to recognition by investors and money lenders.

An entirely separate market in New York is that known as the "Curb." This is unorganized, has no officials and no rules; therefore a stock receives no particular distinction by appearing on the Curb or showing activity there.

A great many frauds (especially in mining stocks) have been furthered by the ease with which an appearance of real investment demand may be simulated through excited transactions in this Curb market.

A FRAUDULENT MARKET.

A little bit of history from Mr. Harris explains how an even more fraudulent "market" is made. It ought to be read by every one who has ever received circulars from strangers offering stock under extravagant and impossible claims, and by every one who has ever noticed the ridiculous statements of those who use the Sunday papers to promote stocks that no well-informed investor would touch.

> One of these campaigns, recently carried on by a company using a very imposing corporate title, resulted in the sale of $1,000,000 worth of stock of low par value, in lots of one share and up. To facilitate the flotation, clients were offered easy terms of payment and other inducements as to reservation, etc. Those who responded to the literature, but did not purchase, were turned over to a representative of the concern, doing business under another name; the latter offered the stock at concessions from the original price. Still another group of insiders took advantage of the situation and offered their personal holdings, at a further reduction, payable also on the installment plan.
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> These three elements working for the sale of the stock, resulted in a thorough loading up of the public. Those who refused to buy the stock at one price would buy at another, thinking they were obtaining concessions. In the end, purchasers found themselves landed. There was little or no market when they desired to dispose of their holdings. The panic last year, which forced the majority of people to liquidate, prompted holders of this security to "offer it down," the effect of which was the establishing of a market at about 10 per cent. of the original flotation figure.
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> That the insiders well knew what was coming is shown by the attitude of some of them who, acting as dealers, sold the stock "short" on the installment plan and bought it when the break came. They anticipated the time when there would be little or no market and when the holders could sell only at an immense sacrifice.
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> There being no fixed market for the stock, certain people were selling at one price and others buying at double or triple that price, simultaneously. Had this stock been listed or traded in, on the Curb, there would have been a uniform market at all times for both buyers and sellers.

FOUR FRENCH APPRAISERS OF AMERICA.*

BY LIONEL STRACHEY.

"IF Washington came to life again, he would feel much more at home in London than in New York."

A person capable of such an observation might be worth listening to. Likewise a second person, who made the following remark: "I believe that the more one studies the contemporary problems which the United States must solve, the more one becomes convinced of Mr. Roosevelt's having fundamentally taken the right views. He may have taken them a little too soon,—at a time when people were neither able to understand nor ready to follow him. But history will vindicate him. The United States is just now in active transition, with Mr. Roosevelt as President at this clouded, uncertain period. And since his character brooks no half-measures, the decision of his attitude forms a striking contrast against the indecision of the situation."

Fortunately, the gentlemen quoted have not only made further perspicacious remarks on the subject of America, but have had them printed. And both gentlemen are lucky enough,—for them and for us,—to belong to the cleverest of modern nations, the keenest, the clearest-sighted. A Frenchman may take a bad shot, but he will always hit something,—or somebody. The late lamented "Max O'Rell" (Paul Blouët) battered this country right merrily with "Jonathan and His Continent," and though the authors just cited have justice, not jocularity, for their object, the volumes "Aux États-Unis" and "Notes sur les États-Unis" provide, with two other books immediately to be mentioned, a lot of entertaining information and informing entertainment. Historian and economist, the Vicomte d'Avenel bears the distinction of contributorship to the *Revue des Deux Mondes,* and of a prize award by the French Academy, this second honor also accruing to André Tardieu, editor of the Parisian newspaper *Le Temps* and author of "Notes sur les États-Unis." Besides, we have Professor Achille Viallate, lecturer at the National School of Political Science, with his comprehensive study of "L'Industrie Américaine," a work of encyclopedic exactness, embodying reference to all kinds of authoritative local sources, such as David Wells and Carroll Wright, Professor Ely and Professor Sumner, John Mitchell, and government reports. Finally, as foil and balance to this semi-statistical tome, comes Hugues Le Roux's "L'Amour aux États-Unis," a subject one would suppose to cause palpitation rather than contemplation. As a fact, M. Le Roux, a lively and diverting journalist whose travels have given him considerable acquaintance with American life, mixes in a certain amount of imagination, so that he must be read with some discrimination. Furthermore, a few of his pages are too frisky, or, as the French say, risky, for reading aloud under the family lamp.

Our four Gauls are fully agreed on the supereminent position occupied here by the business man, who in France finds himself placed below the jurist, the scientist, and the artist, ranked beneath statesman, sacerdotalist, and soldier. Quite justly does he come by this acknowledgment of superiority, for, in the words of Professor Viallate, "The most remarkably gifted individuals of the nation have for the last fifty years devoted their energies to business, which has absorbed the most original minds and the best tempered characters,—in fact, the nation's cream." And M. d'Avenel explains why his own countrymen make so poor a showing when they emigrate hither to engage in commerce or industry: they have no enterprise. The success of the American people, as that of the American person, M. d'Avenel avers, is due to the American "love of risk,"—as opposed to the French fear of it. He goes so far,—which is not greatly too far,—as to call this a nation of speculators, illustrating his point by the attitude of the agriculturist. There is no rural class here, there are no peasants; there are simply men ready to cultivate cucumbers with the same enthusiasm as they would manage a tram-line, edit a newspaper, or pursue any vocation that promised to be lucrative.

They see, too, these Frenchmen, how ambition goes hand in hand with enterprise. "In the United States the thing that counts is not what you come into the world as, but what you become in the world. What would they say in France of one who had begun as a grocer, then had practiced dentistry, and at last had gone into the Senate? He would be made fun of by the caricaturists. In America it is the idler who gets laughed at. No one ever believes himself destined to live and die within the confines of a particular occupation, any one being regarded as a temporary lodging, which you move into with the hope of soon setting up to better advantage elsewhere."

The dignity, the "nobility," of work is made the subject of a whole chapter in "Aux États-Unis," where the author declares that the American nation has gained not only its bread by labor, but its soul. Most of the French, on the other hand, looking upon work as an unendurable imposition, sigh for their freedom, believing "that the ideal state is to live without anything to do, like the flower in the field or the clipper of coupons (*rentier*)."

As to the amount of manual labor accomplished, if the skilled workman puts no more

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* Aux tats-Unis. By Vicomte G. d'Avenel. Paris: Armand Colin. 255 pp. 3 Fr. 50 C.
Notes sur les États-Unis. By André Tardieu. Paris: Calmann-Lévy. 381 pp. 3 Fr. 50 C.
L'Industrie Américaine. By Achille Viallate. Paris: Félix Alcan. 492 pp. 10 Fr.
L'Amour aux États-Unis. By Hugues Le Roux. Paris: Juven et Cie. 285 pp. 3 Fr. 50 C.

vigor into his task than his European rival, he yet goes about it in a less leisurely style, and devotes a deeper concentration to it. The sobriety of the American workingman is notable; he often drinks milk with his dinner (but surely just as often tea or coffee—of capricious temperature), and in some factories the consumption of alcohol, even of beer, is prohibited. Other causes conducing to the large output of American workshops are their highly systematic organization and management, the employment of ingenious labor-saving devices, and the relatively small attention paid to the minute perfecting of an article (really, however, limited to a few branches owing to practical necessities of competition). Twenty years ago one did not foresee the possibility of the United States rising to the rank of a great exporter of industrial products, a country which at present seems destined to be rated by its manufactures, with agriculture taking second place. For the moment, the "megalomania" of the trusts and the "bellicose attitude" of the labor unions appear as the factors most disturbing to sound industrial prosperity. Recent public judgment of the country's financial princes has been so severe because the country now has less need of their wealth and their enterprise for its development.

"During the twenty years following the Civil War, enormous courage, indomitable force of will, and prophetic imagination were required by those who staked effort, name, and fortune on laying highways of iron in front of population and trade." But railroading is no longer a matter of exclusively private activity. The State has stepped in, having discovered itself entitled to certain rights of control. In this land of rapid change and constant progress, the Government has of late years assumed a new position toward the exploiters of toil and soil, with rulings restrictive and assistive. Far from confining itself to factory and railroad legislation, the Government has, in the first place, undertaken to improve the conduct of agriculture. The national Department of Agriculture tests seeds for the farmers, distributes samples to them, gives them sundry information by mail, and teaches them scientific methods through the agency of itinerant lecturers, while experiment stations and State colleges yield further opportunity for acquiring profitable knowledge. Sylviculture has also become a Government function, and the Federal superintendence over the public forest domains is no less scientific than beneficent. Washington now keeps a vigilant eye upon the country's natural resources, with a view to the prevention of waste,—that is, the preservation of wealth,—in the case, for example, of "white coal," as Professor Viallate refers to water power. And M. d'Avenel waxes enthusiastic, almost poetic, over the turning of alkali deserts into fertile farm-lands by the means of stupendous irrigation schemes. But he very curtly,—and quite cogently,—characterizes the American rural landscape and its dwellers as unpoetic; he roundly,—and rightly,—declares that this nation has no sense of beauty.

Our observant Frenchmen are fairly unanimous as to the crude culture and common tastes of those successful business men whose force, resource, and courage they so much admire. M. Le Roux comes out emphatically on this point, noticing likewise how lack of intellectual and artistic interests on the part of rich American men makes marriageable girls of their own class prefer the companionship of titled foreigners, who, besides the glory of historic names, have the advantage of more finely polished minds and manners to present. "Women feel no regard for success in business," remarks M. Le Roux, "beyond their liking of the money earned in business. Experience proves the fact that, whether as husband or financier, the man who has no seductions to offer but his cash fascinates no hearts. . . . What she [the American woman] wants is one of those men of leisure, sprung from an old civilization, who shall have time to bestow his attention upon her, who shall listen to her, answer her, understand her." The same writer pays full tribute to the personal charms and social graces of native femininity, as well as to its infuriated extravagance and its infantile restlessness.

The "Notes sur les États-Unis" contain equally acute comments by M. Tardieu upon the life of fashionable society, where he finds "more spontaneity, a fresher, opener sort of cheerfulness than in Europe. When they come together at parties these men and women are glad to have met, and they give themselves up heartily to the enjoyment of such an agreeable occasion. There is less of the artificial and the conventional than with us. They bring more warmth and enthusiasm to their social intercourse. It is rather a pleasure than a duty to them. And the people who conceal their boredom behind a polite smile are fewer than in London or Paris. Briefly, they are less jaded, and have no desire to appear jaded."

For the kind of local candor possessed by Mr. Roosevelt, both M. Tardieu and M. d'Avenel have decided praise if mingled with a little laughter. And the pair of them think France has reason to envy that "religious liberty" (it seems queer even to mention the subject in America) which led M. Tardieu to note the presence of a Protestant and two Catholic bishops at a White House luncheon. Indicating these ecclesiastics, Mr. Roosevelt said to the editor of *Le Temps:* "You see, we are liberal here, not anti-clerical. There are a Catholic and a Hebrew in my Cabinet; the others are Protestants, and we all get on famously together. We have no religious problem in this country." No doubt, too, the author of "Aux États-Unis," himself a viscount, meant to eulogize the spirit of democracy pervading all America, official and clerical, fashionable and plebeian, when he wrote on his last page but one: "Among all their eminences on this earth, among all the living members of the Sacred College, including even the most gorgeous of those who still own princely titles, semi-feudal palaces, and millions of revenue, not one receives so much *voluntary* respect, exercises more influence, and holds a higher place in the Christian world, than that cardinal who walks about the streets of Baltimore in a plain black coat, with the edge of his little red skull-cap appearing beneath the back of a tall silk hat as his only insignia of distinction."

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION.

The Tragedy of Korea. By F. A. McKenzie. Dutton. 312 pp., ill. $2.

The author of this work confesses to a sense of disappointment in the outcome of Japan's occupation of Korea. As an Englishman, he believes that the English people owe it to themselves and to their national ally, Japan, "to let it be clearly known that a policy of imperial expansion based upon breaches of solemn treaty obligations to a weaker nation, and built up by odious cruelty, by needless slaughter, and by wholesale theft of the private property rights of a dependent and defenseless peasantry, is repugnant to our instincts and cannot fail to rob the nation that is doing it of much of that respect and good-will with which we all so recently regarded it."

South America on the Eve of Emancipation. By Bernard Moses. Putnam. 356 pp. $1.50.

Dr. Moses, who is a professor in the University of California and the author of several other works on South American history and traditions, attempts in this work to present the salient phases of colonial history and social organization in the southern continent during the last half of the eighteenth century.

The Justice of the Mexican War. By Charles H. Owen. Putnams. 291 pp. $1.25.

In this book Mr. Owen, who was formerly a member of the staff of the Army of the Potomac, gives a review of the causes and results of our war with Mexico, "with a view to distinguishing evidence from opinion and inference." His desire, he says, is to vindicate the justice of the war and to "acquit the United States as a nation of the most serious, if not the only, charge ever made against her honor."

The Tragedy of Quebec. By Robert Sellar. The Gleaner, Huntingdon, Quebec. 124 pp. $1.

A study of the political and economic development of the province of Quebec, with special reference to the disappearance of the Protestant English farmers from the south shore of the St. Lawrence.

The Northwest Passage. By Roald Amundsen. Dutton. 2 vols., 732 pp., ill. $8.

Captain Amundsen's narrative is of more immediate interest to Americans than are the ordinary accounts of Arctic exploration. The search for the Northwest Passage has always appealed in a peculiar way to the American imagination, since it concerns the interests of our own continent so directly and for a long time was thought to have important bearings on international commerce. Captain Amundsen's modest record of his voyage is by no means barren of scientific contributions, since the discoveries regarding the magnetic pole which were made by his expedition have cleared up many obscurities. Apart from that, the information that he gives of the natives and the flora and fauna of the regions visited is of distinct value.



CAPTAIN ROALD AMUNDSEN.

(Who has written an interesting account of his voyage through the Northwest Passage.)

VOLUMES ON VARIOUS SUBJECTS.

The Real Bryan. By Richard L. Metcalfe. Des Moines, Ia.: Personal Help Publishing Company. 320 pp., por. $1.25.

This is a collection of extracts from speeches and writings of Mr. Bryan, made by his associate on the *Commoner* staff, Mr. Richard L. Metcalfe. Some of the quotations are from speeches made before Mr. Bryan's famous campaign of 1896, and the range of topics covered by both written and spoken utterances is very wide.

Wheat Fields and Markets of the World. By Rollin E. Smith. St. Louis: Modern Miller Company. 418 pp. $2.

This is a decidedly useful book and one that makes us wonder why the idea was not worked out long ago. So many countries are engaged in wheat-growing, and so meager is the knowl-

edge possessed by most Americans of the methods followed in those countries, that Mr. Smith brings to the average reader, we are sure, a fund of fresh and varied information. Conditions in Western Canada are especially instructive and the countries of Europe and Argentina contribute their quota of important data.

The Book: Its History and Development. By Cyril Davenport. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company. 256 pp., ill. $2.

This is an account of book-making on its mechanical side from prehistoric times down to the present day. The materials employed in all branches of the art are carefully described and there is also a good account of the various processes of manufacture.

The Brahmans, Theists, and Muslims of India. By John Campbell Oman. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. 342 pp., ill. $3.50.

The Religion of the Veda. By Maurice Bloomfield. Putnam. 300 pp. $1.50.

In these two cognate works on Hindu theology and philosophy we have the entire range of historical personages and theological conceptions considered. Dr. Oman's book is more of a descriptive study of Hindu caste, festivals, and ceremonies. His long experience as a member of the faculty of the Government College at Lahore has given him unusual facilities for the study of Indian lore. Dr. Bloomfield is professor of Sanskrit and philology in Johns Hopkins University, and this is one of the series of American lectures on the history of religions published by the Putnams.

The Art of Singing and Vocal Declamation. By Sir Charles Santley. Macmillan. 143 pp. 1.25.

If, says Sir Charles in his preface, the art of singing really does die out it will be because the present system of teaching continues. His remarks and opinions in this little volume are founded on theoretical and practical experience extending over some sixty years.

Astronomy with the Naked Eye. By Garrett P. Serviss. Harper. 247 pp., ill. $1.40.

This book aims to aid the casual observer of our skies at night to appreciate the scheme of the constellations. Lists and charts add to its value.

The Comments of Bagshot. Edited by J. A. Spender. Holt. 151 pp. $1.25.

A collection of clever, crisply put observations on social and economic facts by the editor of the *Westminster Gazette*, who himself is "Bagshot." Wit and wisdom are the qualities which distinguish the writer's style.

OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED.

The Alaska Purchase and Americo-Canadian Relations. By James M. Callahan. Morgantown, W. Va.: West Virginia University. 44 pp. $0.50.

Private Freight Cars and American Railways. By L. D. H. Weld. Longmans, Green & Co. 185 pp. $1.50.

Early New England Towns. By Anne Bush MacLear. Longmans, Green & Co. 181 pp. $1.50.

Insomnia and Nerve Strain. By H. S. Upson, M.D. Putnam. 142 pp., ill. $1.50.

Rotunda Midwifery for Nurses and Midwives. By G. T. Wrench, M.D. London: Henry Frowde. 324 pp., ill.

Life Insurance and General Practice. By E. M. Brockbank, M.D. London: Henry Frowde. 288 pp.

Principles of Psychic Philosophy. By Charles B. Newcomb. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co. 199 pp. $1.40.

A History of Art, Vol. I. By Dr. G. Carotti. Dutton. 420 pp, ill. $1.50.

In the Track of R. L. Stevenson. By J. A. Hammerton. Dutton. 255 pp., lll. $1.50.

Sunshine and Sport in Florida and the West Indies. By F. G. Aflalo. 272 pp., ill. $4. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.

Michel de Montaigne. By Gabriel Compayré. Crowell. 139 pp., por. $0.90.

Psychical Research and the Resurrection. By James H. Hyslop. Small, Maynard & Co. 409 pp. $1.50.

The Beliefs of Unbelief. By W. H. Fitchett. New York: Eaton & Mains. 293 pp. $1.25.

A Manual of Cheirosophy. By E. Heron-Allen Putnams. 319 pp., ill. $1.75.

Argumentation and Debating. By William T Foster. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 486 pp. $1.25.

The Romance of the Reaper. By Herbert N. Casson. Doubleday, Page. 184 pp., ill. $1.

Roosevelt and the Republic. By J. W. Bennett. New York: Broadway Publishing Company. 424 pp. $1.50.

The New American Type, and Other Essays. By Henry D. Sedgwick. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 343 pp. $1.50.

Practical Citizenship. By Rev. Adolph Roeder. New York: Blanchard Press. 215 pp. $1.50.

Israel's Laws and Legal Precedents. By Charles F. Kent. Scribners. 301 pp., ill. $2.75.

Moral Training in the Public Schools. By Charles E. Rugh, T. P. Stevenson, Edwin D. Starbuck, Frank Cramer, and George E. Myers. Ginn & Co. 203 pp. $1.50.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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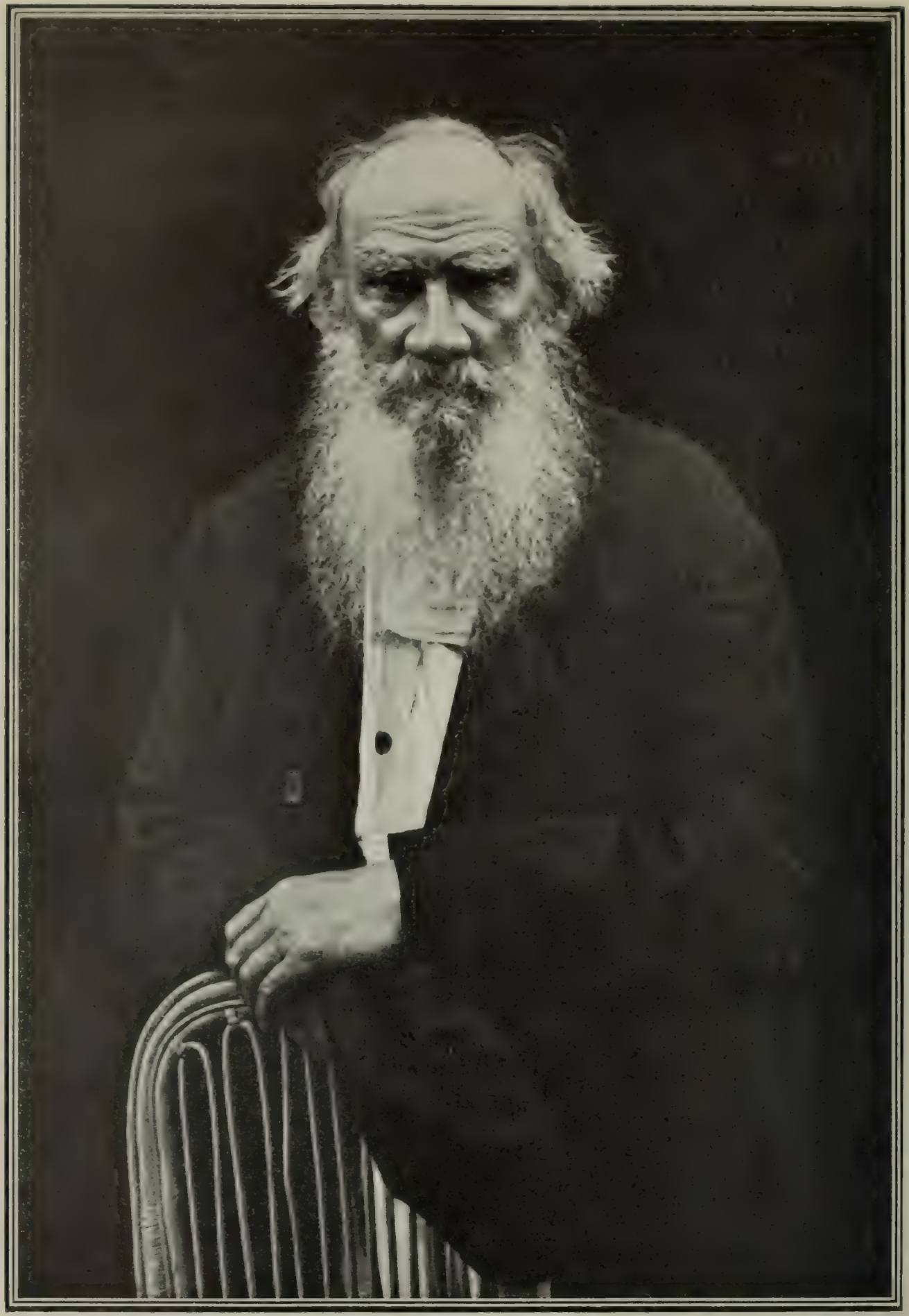
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TOLSTOY AT EIGHTY.

(From his most recent photograph, received last month from Russia. See page 443.)

THE AMERICAN
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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

A Campaign That Starts Slowly.

The political situation was commonly reported last month as apathetic beyond all previous experience in Presidential years; but memory is apt to delude people about things of this kind. Exactly the same remarks were prevalent four years ago. The campaign of 1904, which resulted in such tremendous enthusiasm for Mr. Roosevelt and such overwhelming majorities, did not warm up at all until well into October. Not only was the pivotal State of New York regarded by the best authorities four years ago as extremely doubtful, but all the old wiseacres at Republican State and national headquarters had by the 20th of October given the State up as surely lost to the Democrats. Our readers will remember that the State actually gave Roosevelt a plurality of 175,000. This year, as in all previous Presidential elections for many years past, it is within the practical possibilities that the Republicans can carry the country and yet lose New York, while the Democrats could scarcely hope to win if New York were conceded to the Taft forces.

New York State Again the First.

Four years ago a strong effort was made to persuade the Hon. Elihu Root to accept the nomination for the governorship, because it was felt that a very strong State ticket was necessary to help pull the Roosevelt national ticket safely through the decisive ordeal of the contest in the Empire State. But Mr. Root did not think he was needed and, having just retired to private life after a brilliant career in the War Department, was not willing to return to office. Soon afterward, indeed, the death of Mr. Hay made an unexpected call upon his services, and he has crowned his former public service with some years of work at the head of the State Department, not equaled, perhaps, in our history for efficiency and constructive statesmanship. This year Mr. Root was again asked to take the nomination for the governorship of New York by the leaders of a convention over which he presided. He refused to consider the suggestion, because he believed the renomination of Governor Hughes to be both right and politic and was certain that it could be accomplished. Mr. Hughes was renominated, and all his chief opponents promptly acquiesced and promised their loyal support. Mr. Root, at the Republican State Convention held at Saratoga in the middle of September, delivered a speech which should form one of the great documents of the national campaign.

Republicans in the Empire State.

The Republicans of the State of New York now have before them a perfectly clear and unmistakable situation. They have a national ticket that commands respect and confidence, and they have a State ticket of which the same thing can truthfully be said. The fact that many of the politicians in control of the State organization were opposed to Governor Hughes is one of those matters that counts in our American politics more significantly before conventions than afterward. The opposition to Governor Hughes was not of the sort that involves feuds or malice, or that divides parties. The so-called machine leaders are going to support Governor Hughes with loyalty, and have never for a moment put themselves in a position where they could be suspected of any intention to be disloyal to the ticket as finally chosen. It was some of the ardent Hughes men who had made the mistake of putting themselves in the position of saying that they would bolt the ticket if any other Republican whatsoever were nominated. This was an absurd position, without the smallest degree of justification. Mr. Hughes had

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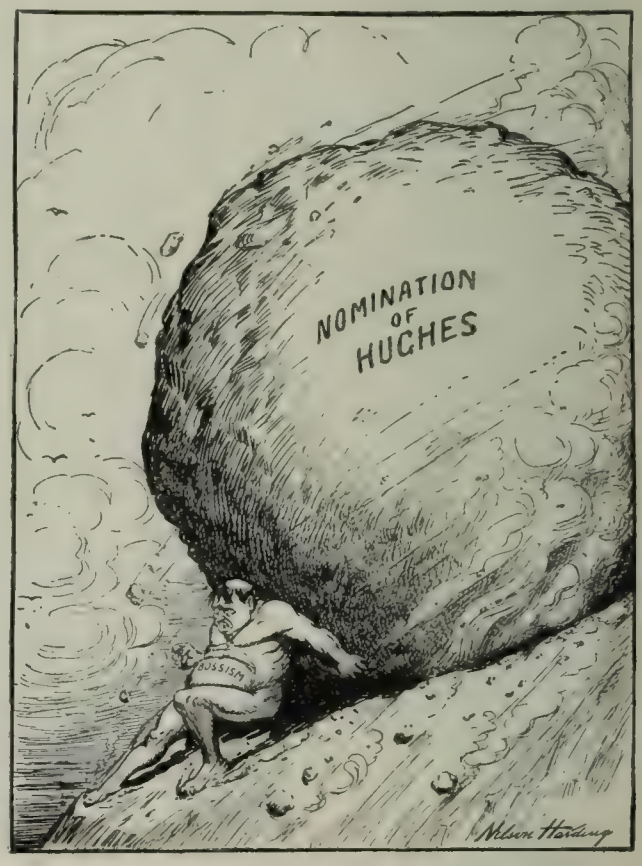
LEADERS AT THE SARATOGA CONVENTION.

(On the left is Senator Horace White, of Syracuse, nominee for Lieutenant-Governor. In the center is Hon. Timothy L. Woodruff, State chairman. On the right is William Barnes, Jr., of Albany.)

declared that he would not accept a renomination under any circumstances, and he had stuck to this position for a long time. He had been before the American people as a candidate for the Presidency while unwilling to serve either as Governor or as Vice-President. There was much opposition in various quarters to Governor Hughes, and the politicians,—not to use the word in any disparaging sense,—had reached the conclusion that he would not make a strong run before the people. They were justified in exercising their freedom of preference; but their weakness lay in the fact that they could not agree upon anybody else who was strong and at the same time available.

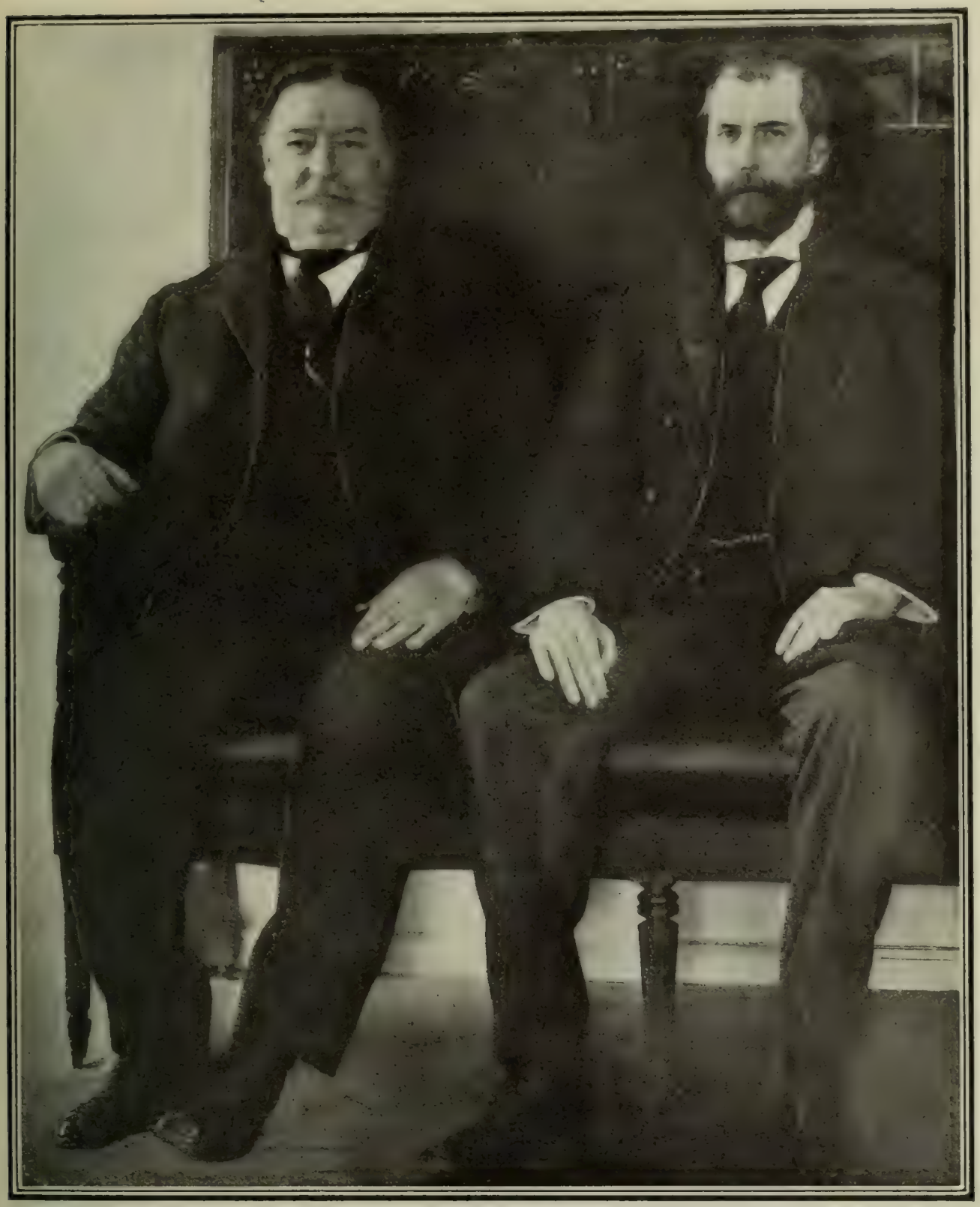
Gov. Hughes and the Party.

President Roosevelt had come to the conclusion from the national standpoint that the nomination of Governor Hughes was necessary. Mr. Parsons, chairman of the Republican organization in New York City, was strongly of the contrary opinion until finally convinced by tests in different Assembly districts which showed that the Republican voters actually wanted Hughes. Mr. Woodruff, chairman of the State Committee, held out against Hughes until it was clear that nobody else could be agreed upon who would have all of Hughes' strength without having any of his weakness. Mr. Root was in his appropriate place as Secretary of State. The leaders at the Saratoga convention as a last resort undertook to bring about the nomination of the Hon. David Jayne Hill, now Ambassador at Berlin, but Mr. Hill's circumstances obviously place him with Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Root in his political attitude. Governor Hughes meanwhile had strengthened himself not a little in his own State by the magnificent speech he had made at Youngstown on September 5, at the formal opening of the Ohio campaign. He shared honors there with Senator Beveridge, the other leading speaker. No man has a finer appreciation of the character and qualities of Judge Taft than has Governor Hughes; and New York's Governor presents the larger political situation with a singular force and persuasiveness. The respect that the country feels for Governor Hughes is very great,



THE DOOM OF THE "BOSSLET" IN NEW YORK STATE.

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York.)



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Hon. William H. Taft. Gov. Charles E. Hughes.

TWO EMINENT REPUBLICAN CANDIDATES.

because it believes that he stands inflexibly for what he thinks right, and that he is also a man of unusual talents, training, and strength of will. He will speak at various points in the national campaign for Judge Taft, and will do most of his home stumping in the last half of October. He will try to prove himself an "asset," not a "liability."

Harmony and Commendation.

In a Presidential year the whole country looks to the State of New York because of its pivotal position. Republicans are cheered or discouraged, therefore, according to the views they entertain of the work done by the New York State convention. If the convention at Saratoga names a high-grade ticket and shows a

united front, with strong men and sound positions, the national party takes heart and feels that the chances of general success are enhanced. President Roosevelt, Judge Taft, Mr. Sherman, Mr. Root, Mr. Cortelyou, Mr. Hitchcock, chairman of the National Committee, and other leading Republicans of the country had become absolutely convinced that the renomination of Hughes was the proper and needful thing. Mr. Hitchcock had reached this conclusion after a patient study of the situation. The politicians of the State could not successfully resist a Hughes sentiment backed by men of such strength and supported strongly by the leading newspapers. Thus, when they finally yielded there was no difficulty in making the nomination of Governor Hughes unanimous. His most outspoken opponent, Mr. Barnes, the leader of the Albany Republicans, finally accepted the result with frankness and good temper. One of the reasons why the leaders of party organization have been so opposed to Governor Hughes is because he has had so little use for them. Mr. Roosevelt as Governor did not surrender his own judgment, yet he worked more tactfully and cordially with his party organization than Governor Hughes has thus far seemed to do. But nothing has happened to cause any real bitterness or to prevent the Governor on the one hand from working more closely with the party nor yet the party leaders from becoming better acquainted personally with a man whom it would not hurt them at all to meet in frequent consultation.

Party Control and Direct Primaries.

Another reason why the organization men are oposed to the Governor lies in the Governor's determined championship of the direct primary as a substitute for the present convention system. Nowhere in the world is party machinery so powerful as in the State of New York. With a tremendous sentiment favorable to the nomination of Hughes, the organization leaders had it easily in their power to defeat his nomination at the Saratoga convention if they had so chosen. In other words, a group of leaders controlled the convention. It was not necessary to convince the convention that President Roosevelt was right in regarding Mr. Hughes' nomination as necessary; it was only necessary to convince half a dozen leaders, who, in turn, controlled the larger delegations. A direct and open kind of primary election, such as has been adopted in a number of other States, would greatly reduce the prestige and actual power of the State central committee, the county chairmen, and the other organization leaders. It is not strange that the men who have worked themselves up into positions of power in this dominating party organization should be in favor of the retention of a system which they know how to operate and which gives them control not only of nominations but also to a large extent of the work of the Legislature. There are things to be said in favor of the existing system, and there are things to be said against the primary election plan in its full and extreme forms. But in the State of New York it has been true for a long time that freedom from the domination of men who hold power through their control of party organization has been more than almost anything else a requisite for the triumph of popular rule and really good government. The Republican situation has been vastly improved so far as its relations to public opinion go, under the recent régime, as compared with that which prevailed some years ago. But the system itself in its ramifications throughout the State is not the best one that could be devised.

Boss-Ridden Democracy in New York.

What is true of the Republican situation in New York is true of the Democratic, with the qualification that the Republican machine is in far better hands than that of its opponent. The Democracy of New York is controlled by three men of whom one towers far above the others in importance and power. The dominating personality is Murphy, head of Tammany Hall, whose real relations are generally supposed to be with the corporations and the interests that are concerned with legislation, rather than with the people. Next to Mr. Murphy in the Democratic organization is the State chairman, Mr. Conners, of Buffalo. And third in importance and power is Mr. McCarren, of Brooklyn, who is always mentioned as the agent of the Standard Oil Company and other corporations,—this being a matter about which we have no knowledge beyond that of constant and uncontradicted newspaper statement. Mr. McCarren has valued his control of the great borough of Brooklyn, and has resented the invasion of Brooklyn by Tammany Hall. Hence a deep feud, which resulted in his discomfiture at the Denver National Democratic Convention. But Mr. McCarren was triumphantly reinstated in power by the State convention in Rochester last month, and it was stated in the press that Mr. Bryan had succeeded in recon-



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LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR CHANLER AND HIS FAMILY.

(Mr. Chanler is Democratic Candidate for Governorship of New York.)

ciling the warring spoilsmen, so that organized Democracy is to present a united front.

Bryan's Slogan Does Not Apply.

It would not, of course, be quite fair to Mr. Bryan to twit him upon a situation in New York for which he is not responsible, and which he must in his innermost soul detest and abhor. It is not in the least true of the masses of the Democratic party in New York that they are dominated in their views by the franchise-holding corporations. But it is certainly true that the machinery of the Democratic party is absolutely controlled by the sort of men who represent the very thing that Mr. Bryan in his speeches most bitterly attacks. If any political organization ever existed with which the corrupt corporations like to do business, that organization is Tammany Hall; and Tammany, through its affiliations, controls the Democratic machinery of the one State Mr. Bryan must capture in order to be elected President. The boss system is not really a party affair. It is a system of spoliation that has seized upon the machinery of both parties wherever it could; and the bosses that have controlled party machinery by the use of money that has been given them from corporation sources have always and everywhere understood one another well enough to devise some way of dividing the spoils and recognizing the principle of "live and let live." Thus there has always been a certain amount of community of interest between Republican bossism and Democratic bossism in the State of New York. Both parties should try harder than ever to emancipate themselves. Meanwhile, however, it is not particularly timely for Mr. Bryan to bring his slogan, "Shall the people rule," into the State of New York, for the simple reason that his own party in that great State is decidedly more shackled and more dominated by bosses and corporations than is the party that stands for Governor Hughes and for the work of the two public service commissions.

Chanler for Governor.

The Democratic State Convention met at Rochester while the Republicans were still in session at Saratoga. The Democrats nominated for Governor Mr. Lewis Stuyvesant Chanler,



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MR. LEWIS STUYVESANT CHANLER.

now Lieutenant-Governor. Mr. Chanler had repeatedly declared that he would not be a candidate against Governor Hughes. Public men are, however, privileged to change their minds when nominations actually come their way. It will be remembered that in the last State election, when William R. Hearst was the Democratic candidate for Governor, Mr. Chanler was his running mate as candidate for Lieutenant-Governor. Mr. Hughes was the only Republican who was elected on the State ticket, and Mr. Hearst the only Democrat who was defeated. Mr. Chanler, the Democratic Lieutenant-Governor, has therefore been the presiding officer of the Republican State Senate. He has been a close and precise observer of Governor Hughes' administration, and has given it his repeated endorsement. The State knows what kind of a Governor it has in Mr. Hughes, and it knows that Mr. Chanler believes that Mr. Hughes is the right sort. But it does not know what kind of a Governor Mr. Chanler himself would make. He is a man of wealth who has in various ways shown sympathy with the unfortunate and with workingmen, and was an exponent of the Hearst policies of reform. His boomlet for the Presidency was carried from New York to Denver, but was quickly snuffed out in the highly charged Bryan atmosphere. Mr. Hearst now accuses Mr. Chanler of surrender to the corporations.

An Achievement In Harmony.

Mr. Chanler will be personally popular, and his nomination is regarded as a good stroke from the vote-getting standpoint. The legislative and administrative affairs of the State of New York are important and complicated, and they require in the Governor's chair a man of great talent, judgment, force, and experience. Mr. Chanler has not been tested, and nobody can foretell in advance what kind of an administrator he will make if elected. That he is honorable and public-spirited seems to be conceded on all hands. The harmonious work of the Rochester convention was crowned by the appearance on the scene, in the closing hours, of the "Great Commoner" himself. Mr. Bryan had sent his national chairman, the Hon. Norman E. Mack, to Rochester, to urge the necessity of harmony. Mr. Mack had been highly successful in his errand. Ex-Justice Morgan J. O'Brien had been temporary chairman, and the Hon. Alton B. Parker, Democratic candidate four years ago, had been permanent presiding officer. In obedience to the dictates of the great Nebraska chieftain, the McCarren spoilsmen of Brooklyn had all been admitted to seats in a convention that was dom-



OYSTERS ARE IN SEASON (AND THE ROCHESTER CONVENTION WAS CHARLEY MURPHY'S OYSTER.)

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York.)

inated by the Tammany spoilsmen of Manhattan. The great conservative element was represented by ex-Judges O'Brien and Parker, who made those clever and serious-sounding speeches that great lawyers of their type can always make to justify any change whatsoever in their political alignment.

Bryan in New York.

Politics certainly makes strange bedfellows. Judge Parker four years ago represented everything that Mr. Bryan denounced and detested; Murphy, of Tammany, more than any other man, stands for all the unspeakable methods in politics that Bryan proposes to reform,—as also does Conners, the State chairman; while McCarren's position is notoriously that of a political representative of the monopolistic interests which Bryan is advertised as apostolically ordained to destroy. But none of these things seem to give Mr. Bryan any qualms. He arises and proceeds to lecture and denounce the Republican party for having permitted wicked trusts and corporations to lift up their heads in our fair land; and his entourage of New York corporation lawyers and of bosses who hold their power by virtue of corporation graft grows moist in the eyes and applauds his sentiments till the rafters ring. Such is the great national game.



THE DOVE OF PEACE.

(Apropos of the truce between Murphy and McCarren at Rochester.)

From the *Evening World* (New York.)



"FINE!"

(The New York *World*, which is supporting Bryan, represents Thos. F. Ryan as indorsing Murphy's work at Rochester.)

From the *World* (New York.)

Accepted by Democracy's Elite.

Mr. Bryan proceeded from Rochester to the little State of Delaware, and here again he was *persona grata* in the circles of the elect. He glorified the distinguished Democratic families that bear the names of Bayard, Gray, and Saulsbury,—a lineage that has always been most bitterly opposed to Bryanism,—and he was duly forgiven and much fêted by the present representatives of those families, including Judge George Gray himself. While Mr. Parker and the New York conservatives were praising Bryan and classing him with Thomas Jefferson and Andrew Jackson, and while Judge Gray and the Delaware oligarchy were at last admitting him to their select communion, another great and shining light of the Cleveland conservatives,—namely, Mr. Richard Olney, of Boston,—was giving his reasons in fine Massachusetts dialectics, for supporting the man who most completely represents everything that he has contended against throughout his political life.

Why Mr. Olney Is for Bryan.

Mr. Olney's long and able argument is at least entirely his own. Mr. Bryan on his part has everywhere proclaimed that the platforms are the thing, and that nothing else is to be discussed. Mr. Bryan's phrase, reiterated by him every day, is that "platforms are binding." The

Denver platform he declares to be sound, complete, and righteous. The Chicago platform, he thinks, to use a word that is vulgar, but much in current speech, is absolutely "rotten." Mr. Bryan holds up the Democratic party for glorification, and denounces the Republican party. Mr. Olney contemptuously dismisses all such talk by saying that the platforms do not amount to a row of pins, and that either party might take either platform, while both platforms might as well repose in the waste basket,—this being not Mr. Olney's phraseology, but his general idea. Furthermore, Mr. Olney seems to say that it makes no more difference about men than about platforms. Mr. Bryan has waxed personal in his debating, and charges Taft with being very complacent toward trusts, quite ill-informed in his arguments and statements, and utterly lacking in the force and strength necessary for the Presidency, claiming that he himself, William Jennings Bryan, is the only real and true heir to the place held by Theodore Roosevelt, while William H. Taft is a spurious and ill-qualified claimant. To all this Mr. Olney is as indifferent as a highly trained New England intellect has ever been on any subject toward a brand of opinion originating west of the Mississippi River. Mr. Olney thinks that the candidates are all well enough, and that the Republicans might just as well have nominated Bryan, while the Democrats could have nominated Taft without any particular inconsistency. Mr. Richard Olney is a conservative, and what he wants is a result that shall make for conservatism. And he holds that a Democratic victory in this country would have that result.

Mr. Bryan in His Phases.

Mr. Bryan, who is the most versatile and adroit platform speaker now living, is therefore under necessity of finding a way to live up to the new Eastern theory that he is really a conservative, like Olney and Parker and Gray, while not sacrificing the reputation for unflinching radicalism that is his stock in trade in Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, Colorado, Oklahoma, Texas, Missouri, and elsewhere in the West and Southwest. He must stand in line with the great labor vote of Illinois, New York, and the manufacturing States, and he must attract to himself the farmer vote and that of the small business men. It is to Mr. Bryan's credit that he can fill this changing *rôle* in different parts of the country with buoyancy and confidence, and with no consciousness of any inconsistency or shifting of ground. Mr. Gladstone made many great apparent changes of base and of attitude, with a dialectical skill that always satisfied his own mind and conscience.

As to Campaign Debating.

One of Mr. Bryan's greatest gifts as a campaigner is his ability to lift a minor detail into the semblance of a great issue, and to put his adversary on the defensive in a matter of no real consequence. Thus he accuses Taft of having made an absurd mistake in alluding to



A CROWD OF DELAWARE FARMERS LISTENING TO BRYAN LAST MONTH.



MR. BRYAN CAMPAIGNING IN THE EAST.

an experiment in the State of New York having to do with the guarantee of bank circulation or deposits, or both, somewhere about the year 1829. These are matters about which neither William J. Bryan nor William H. Taft has any knowledge or opinion that is worth more than that of any other intelligent citizen. Theodore Roosevelt knows nothing especial about them, and would not be tricked into an attempt to debate them. Congress has got to take hold of the whole banking and currency system of the United States, in an attempt to give it a more up-to-date character, and make it better fitted for times of stress and emergency. The questions involved are technical and scientific business questions. Every responsible citizen knows that they are not party questions, and that the President of the United States, whether his name be Bryan or Taft, will have very little if anything to do with the details of these problems.

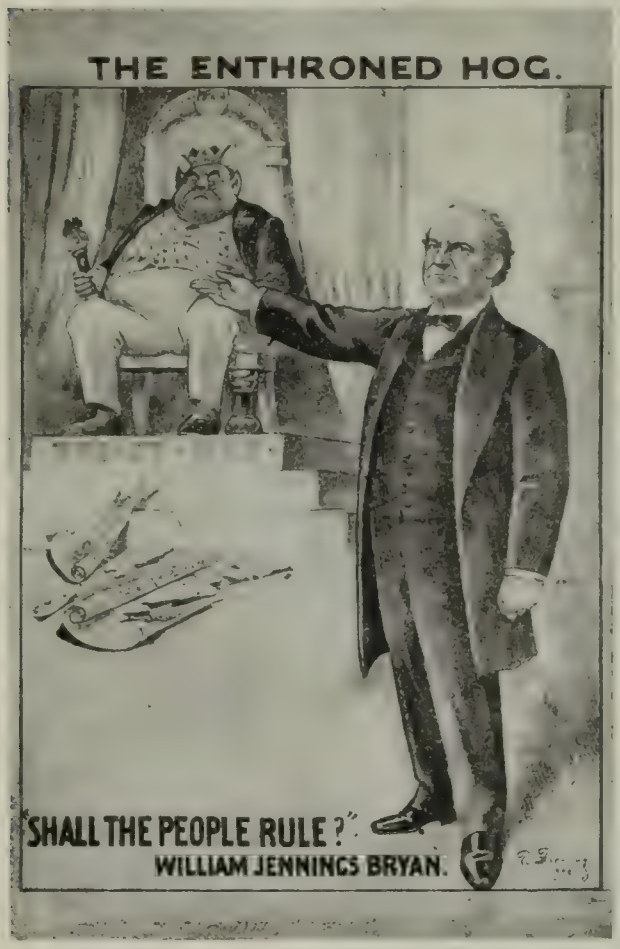
Bank Deposits as an Issue.

Guaranteeing bank deposits in Oklahoma is an interesting local experiment that we shall all observe with interest and due sympathy. If it really works well there, other States in the neighborhood will unquestionably try a similar plan. In fact, the Kansas Republican Convention has already declared in favor of trying the thing in that State. There are some important Republicans who believe that in connection with a thoroughly revised national banking system it would be feasible to try the plan of guaranteeing deposits. Most experienced bankers are opposed to the idea, and do not think it would be advisable. The consensus of the best opinion is against the experiment, in so far as foreign and American thought can be brought to bear on the subject. The topic has had no development on party lines. As too often in his career, Mr. Bryan is cocksure on his main proposition, and then expends all his energies in getting up his debate. As compared with a man like Fowler, of New Jersey, chairman of the House Committee on Currency and Banking, Mr. Bryan is the merest tyro in the real discussion of these financial subjects.

Taft on the Stump.

It is a great deal easier for Mr. Taft, who has had vast judicial and administrative experience, to say about a given topic, "I do not know," than it is for Mr. Bryan, who never likes to admit that he does not know. Mr. Taft is now planning to appear and speak at many

places throughout the country. He will be very fortunate if he adopts the method of telling the people about the things he knows, and knows well, and declines to emulate the most skillful debater of the age in a discussion of side issues. Mr. Taft has had scarcely any more training as a political campaigner and a platform "whooper-up" than had the late Grover Cleveland. He is no James G. Blaine, the largest item in whose stock of trade was his marvelous platform skill and magnetic power in popular campaigning and debating. Mr. Taft was a splendid and capable judge, who knows the United States statutes and their interpretation. Now for many years past he has been a great administrator, facing public duties every day, making innumerable important decisions, and transacting the affairs of the people with the highest credit. He is a vast repository of precise knowledge about the American Government in its executive work. With all respect to Mr. Bryan, it would take the gentleman from Nebraska at least four years of intense industry as actual chief magistrate to acquire anything like William H. Taft's present knowledge of the things a President needs to know about the business of the Presidency. Mr. Taft will therefore be well advised if, in his speeches, he tells the people about the great work the present Administration has accomplished in a vast number of directions,—the sort of record of achievement that Mr. Root set forth at Saratoga.



Reduced fac-simile of a large poster used by the Democratic committee.

Trusts and Candidates.

Mr. Bryan now charges Mr. Taft with being the candidate of the United States Steel Corporation, while Mr. William R. Hearst specifically charges Mr. Bryan with being the candidate of the Standard Oil Company. If there are any public men of note in this country who are in the pay of the United States Steel Corporation, directly or indirectly, it would be interesting to have them pointed out. We have never heard of any. As for the relations of the Standard Oil Company to politics, the record is a very long one, the precise facts are difficult to ascertain, and prominent men in both parties are charged with having been the agents or representatives of that great private interest. We believe Mr. Bryan as well as Mr. Taft to be personally far removed from any discreditable relations whatsoever with corporations that use money corruptly to affect judges, lawmakers, and executive officers. But doubtless there are many mercenary scoundrels in both political camps. The United States Government at the present time is engaged in a serious and formidable attempt to break up the Standard Oil Trust in its present form. This company has been the bitterest foe that President Roosevelt has had to face. Mr. Taft stands absolutely with Mr. Roosevelt in his views upon government policy and the enforcement of the law. If Mr. Bryan were elected President, everything in his practical relation to the enforcement of the Sherman Anti-Trust law would depend upon the men with whom he would surround himself as his cabinet officers and advisers. The public is not yet in a position to form even a guess as to what men he would choose.

The National Organizations.

Elsewhere in this number we publish articles upon the management of the Republican and Democratic campaigns. Mr. Josephus Daniels, of North Carolina, is in charge of press matters at Democratic headquarters, and he has written for this magazine a spirited article that will make it plain to Republican readers with what vigor and hopefulness the opposition is waging its aggressive fight. Mr. Walter Wellman writes of the Republi-

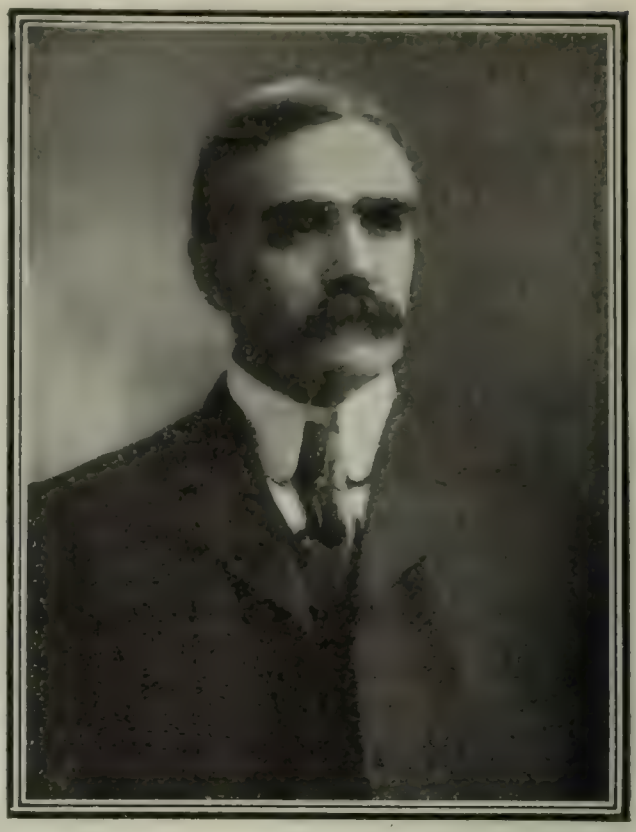


HON. WILLIAM H. TAFT, THE REPUBLICAN CANDIDATE, AND HIS CAMPAIGN CHIEF AND ORGANIZER, HON. FRANK H. HITCHCOCK.

can campaign as one brought into a marvelously precise system through the talents of Mr. Frank H. Hitchcock, the chairman. The Democrats, as the attacking force, have naturally shown earlier activity. The Republicans will disclose great energy through the month of October. At no stage in the present campaign will the old-fashioned method of torchlight parades and mere noise count relatively for very much. Prejudice is playing a smaller part in every campaign, and intelligent discussion is counting for more each year. Furthermore, the independent voter is growing more formidable, and party lines are constantly broken by local issues that are not of a party character.

Maine and Vermont.

For example, the election in Maine last month resulted in a Republican plurality of only about 8,000. If straight party issues had been dominant, the Maine election would point strongly in favor of Mr. Bryan's success in November. But personal and local issues seem to have prevailed, and the question of the resubmission of the liquor question to a vote of the people had probably more to do with reducing the Republican majority than any political tendencies that are of national significance. The Maine Legislature is Republican by about the usual large majority. While Republicans throughout the country have no reason for special rejoicing in the outcome of the Maine election, Democrats, on the other hand, have very little solid comfort to derive from it. The election in Vermont had given the Republicans a plurality exceeding 29,000, this being very similar to the pluralities in the gubernatorial elections of four years ago and eight years ago. The circumstances in Vermont were such as to make the result a much better index of party conditions and tendencies than the result in Maine. At present the Bryan strength is more visible in the West than it is in the East. Mr. Bryan's Eastern tour last month was seemingly a political success, and it made impression enough in certain quarters to help produce a sharp reaction in Wall Street, where stocks had been unduly advanced by skillful manipulation.



HON. GEORGE H. PROUTY.
(Elected Governor of Vermont on September 1.)



HON. BERT M. FERNALD.
(Elected Governor of Maine on September 14.)

Mr. Foraker in Ohio.

Mr. Hearst, who has thus far been the "stormy petrel" of the campaign, made a great sensation in the middle of September by producing certain letters to show that Senator Foraker, of Ohio, had at one time been receiving checks from the Standard Oil Company in connection with correspondence about public

matters with one of the chief officers of that corporation. Mr. Foraker denied that any of the money received was for his influence against bills at Washington for the control of the trusts. As respects one of the checks, which was for an even $50,000, Mr. Foraker explained that it was in furtherance of a project to buy the Ohio *State Journal*. This admission seems to us the most damaging part of the whole business. Senators of the United States ought not to be helping the Standard Oil Company to get control of the leading organs of public opinion in their home commonwealths. Since this transaction is admitted by all parties to it, might it not be very useful to clear up a large number of other current rumors with respect to more or less similar deals for the control of newspapers? The people of the United States have a right to know who directs the policy of a press that pretends to be true to public interest. A newspaper cannot at the same time serve a private interest and represent the public welfare. The position of a newspaper or a periodical in this respect should be as carefully scrutinized as that of a judge on the bench. It is this phase, rather than Mr. Foraker's position in the campaign or in Ohio politics that most deeply concerns the country. Mr. Foraker himself owes his account to the people of Ohio.

Direct Primaries, East and West.

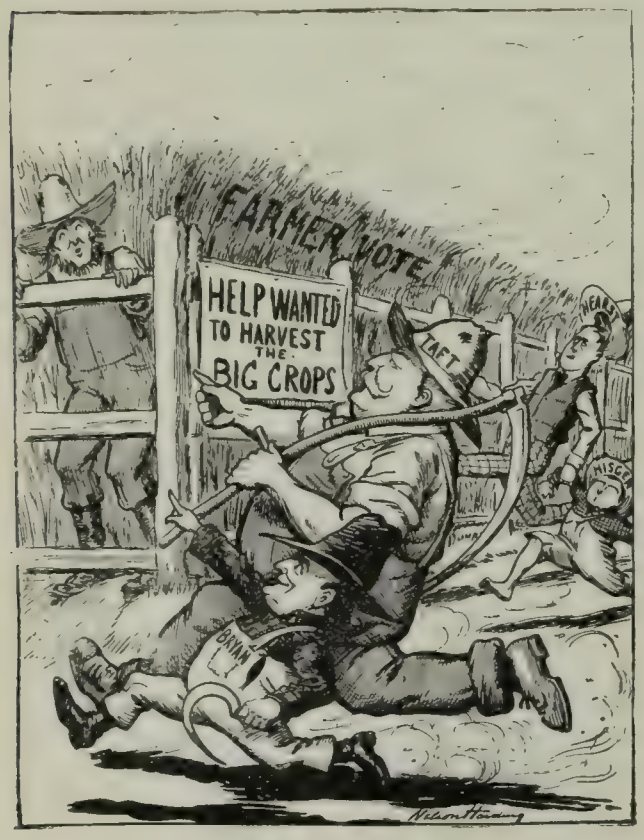
In September, direct primaries for the nomination of State officers and United States Senators were held in the States of Wisconsin, Nebraska, Washington, and New Jersey, following the August primaries of Kansas, Missouri, and Illinois, which were noted in our last number. In Wisconsin, United States Senator Isaac Stephenson was renominated, although strongly opposed by a large element of the La Follette wing of the Republican party in that State, thus affording another illustration of the fact to which we called attention last month,—that Senator La Follette himself has been unable to control the operation of his own primary law. The La Follette Republicans were successful, however, in defeating Congressman Jenkins, who is counted as a "stand-pat" Republican in the House. In the Washington State primaries, Congressman Wesley L. Jones received the Republican nomination for United States Senator to succeed Senator Ankeny. In Nebraska the contests were of only local interest, Governor Sheldon not being opposed for renomination on the Republican side, while Mayor Dahlman, of Omaha, was defeated for the Democratic nomination for Governor by Ashton C. Shallenberger. The first primaries under the new law in New Jersey were to be held on September 22. Interest centered largely in what is known as the New Idea movement, headed by State Senator Colby. The direct primary method of making nominations is being discussed in a number of States where it has not yet been adopted. Thus the New Hampshire Republican convention, which defeated Mr. Pillsbury, the anti-railroad candidate, for the governorship, adopted a platform declaring among other things in favor of a direct primary law. It is believed that had such a law been in existence this year the reformers, headed by Winston Churchill, would have succeeded in nominating Pilsbury. In New York, also, there is renewed interest in direct primaries as a result of the renomination of Governor Hughes, and it is not to be doubted that his election would give a great impetus to the reform in that State.

Changes in the Senate.

Among the results of this year's primary elections the one that has chief significance to the nation at large is the effect on the composition of the Republican majority in the United States Senate. Thus the defeat of Senators Kittredge, of South Dakota; Long, of Kansas; and Ankeny, of Washington,—who are to be replaced, respectively, by Gov. Coe I. Crawford, the Hon. Joseph L. Bristow, and Representative Wesley L. Jones,—means a direct and positive gain for the progressive element in Western Republicanism in the upper house of the national legislature, while Senator Fulton, of Oregon, will probably be succeeded by a Democrat, Gov. George E. Chamberlain. The South Carolina Democrats, on the other hand, have voted to retire Senator Gary at the end of his present term, sending to Washington in his place the Hon. E. D. Smith; while the Democrats of Missouri will decide at the November election between the claims of Senator Stone and Governor Folk for the seat occupied by Mr. Stone since 1903. As we pointed out in our September number, Senator Hopkins, of Illinois, was able to retain his seat only by a bare plurality of the votes cast at the primaries, and a fair conclusion to be derived from the workings of the direct-primary system in the trials of it thus far made is that the voters are inclined to make use of it as a means of retiring the present incumbents of Senate seats.

The Panic Measured in Railway Traffic.

It is now possible to gauge with some accuracy the effect on the railroad industry of last year's panic and its consequent depression. The reports for the first six months of 1908 of a very large majority of the roads are before us, leaving only about one-sixth of the mileage to be estimated. We find that after ten years of almost uninterrupted increases in gross earnings, increases as enormous as they were regular, the railroads of the country earned nearly a quarter of a billion dollars less in the first half of 1908 than in the corresponding half of 1907. What this means is best shown by comparison with the figures of 1904, a year of sharp trade depression. In the first half of that year the decrease from the earnings of the corresponding months of 1903 was less than $20,000,000. So that the year 1908, to July 1, finds the railroads reporting decreases twelve times as large as the falling off in the only other period in the last decade that did not show increases. This formidable evidence of the depression we have passed through is qualified, in the opinion of some authorities, by the very fact of the great strides in earnings taken by the railroads in recent years. They point out that we do not have to go so far back,—indeed, only to 1905,—to find gross earnings even less than the decreased figures of 1908.



PLENTY OF HELP.

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

But it must be remembered that the cost of wages and material has increased enormously since 1905, and that there have been huge new capital issues to provide facilities for an expected further advance in traffic. These factors render a comparison of gross earnings in 1908 with gross earnings in 1905 very cheerless. The widespread character of the falling off was as impressive as the large amounts involved. Not a single railroad of any size showed an increase in 1908 in gross earnings, and only two showed increases in net. The falling off in net earnings was even larger than the decrease in growth, coming apparently to more than 21 per cent. When it is considered that these net earnings must cover interest on a larger volume of bonds than existed in 1907, the extent of the hurt to stockholders can be understood.

A Brighter Outlook.

But now, half way on in the latter six months of 1908, things are looking better. Several months ago, in May and June, the railroads showed some indications of success in handling the problem of reducing expenses to correspond with the smaller volume of traffic. In the face of continuing high prices for steel and other material, and of the impossibility of reducing wages, this was no easy task. But at the height of the falling off in traffic, which came in May, net earnings began to look a little better proportionally, and this work of decreasing expenses has gone on progressively until we find the Union Pacific in July reporting an actual increase in net in the face of the falling off of nearly $500,000 in gross, and the Southern Pacific reporting practically the same net earnings as in the corresponding month of last year. Of course, such results can only be obtained on roads that have been kept in the best physical condition, and not on all of these. Mr. Harriman said, on his return to the East in mid-September, that he had spent $180,000,000 in improving the Southern and Union Pacific between 1900 and 1905, and it is well known that correspondingly large sums have gone into these properties since 1905. But in spite of the fine showing relatively in net earnings of the most fortunate roads, and the better showing of others, it is evidently true that the drastic economies now in force must be at some expense to the physical condition of our great transportation lines, and a scrutiny of the sums currently expended on maintenance of way and equipment, as reported to the Interstate Commerce Commission, shows

specifically that the properties are not being "kept up" as they were before gross earnings fell off. So that it is a much more substantial cause of congratulation that gross earnings themselves are now slowly rising. The decrease for July on the large body of roads reporting was 16.57 per cent., as against an average of nearly 20 per cent. for the first six months of the year; for August the decrease was only 13.57 per cent., and for the first week of September twenty-five roads, which should come near showing the average of the whole, made a falling off of only 10.42 per cent.

The Commodities Clause.

The event of the month most important to industry was the finding of Judge Gray, of the U. S. Circuit Court, against the so-called "commodities clause" of the Hepburn Rate bill, passed by Congress in 1906. This clause prohibited the railways from owning, directly or indirectly, a business dealing in any commodity carried in interstate traffic, except timber. Its important bearing was on the relation of the great coal railways to the mines owned by them, and most importantly on the anthracite situation, in which the supply is very effectively monopolized by the hard-coal roads which carry the fuel from the mines to the distributing points. The prohibition came into force last May, but the Government allowed the roads an extension of time while the courts dealt with the constitutionality of the act. Now Judge Gray and his associate, Judge Dallas (Judge Buffington dissenting) decide that the prohibition is unreasonable and unconstitutional, on the ground that the railroads have, with the consent of State laws, acquired certain property interests and vested rights which the law seeks to confiscate. It had been maintained by the railroads that it would have been a practically impossible task to separate the ownership of the mines from the transportation companies, especially in cases where bonds and stocks had been issued against property consisting of both mines and railroads. Doubtless, if there had been good economic reasons, from their point of view, for such a separation, the astute legal advisers of the railroads would have found some way out of this tangle. Of course, the motive which led the roads to make such a hard, and, so far, successful, fight against the "commodities clause" was the original motive which led them to acquire the unmined supplies of coal. The anthracite fields, especially, are in such an exceedingly limited area that they irresistibly invite monopoly. It is difficult, indeed, in the present trend of industrial combination, to imagine these closely concentrated supplies of a staple necessity in any other condition than monopolized. The railroads certainly could not have afforded to let any other private interests control the coal-beds, as each road would have been left at the mercy of the owner of the anthracite field, and the inevitable result was that the railroads did the monopolizing on their own behalf. The case decided by Judge Gray has been taken on appeal to the Supreme Court, President Roosevelt and Attorney-General Bonaparte taking an especial interest in the effort to secure judicial affirmation of the clause in the Hepburn act.



AN IMPORTANT NOTIFICATION.

The crops notify Mr. Farmer that he is the whole thing and bound to poll the dollars this fall.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

The Final Word on the Crops.

These improving symptoms should be accelerated by the work of moving the crops, which is now immediately before the railroads. The Government's final figures show that we shall produce about 666,000,000 bushels of wheat, 5 per cent. more than in 1907, and 2,600,000,000 bushels of corn, about the same as last year's crop, while other crops come well up to the ten years' averages. Cotton is better off by 3½ per cent. than last year, and a larger acreage is to be harvested. With magnificent prices for grains and a good price



Photograph by David B. Edmonston, Washington

ORVILLE WRIGHT'S AËROPLANE IN FLIGHT AT FORT MYER, VA., ON SEPTEMBER 9.

for cotton, the farmers should be happy. Money has continued to pile up in the great centers in unprecedented volume, with call rates on the New York Stock Exchange rarely exceeding 1½ per cent. The iron and steel industries, and manufacturing interests in general, make slow but steady recovery. It looks as if it were a question of short time when, with political uncertainties removed, the country will much more rapidly approach the trade conditions prior to 1907.

The Conquest of the Air.

The article in our September number entitled "Real Navigation of the Air," by George H. Guy, appeared at a moment when the whole world recognized that aërial flight was on the eve of great achievements. Hardly had that article been placed in the hands of our readers when promise became effective in definite accomplishment. The Wright Brothers, whose work had been described by Mr. Guy, soon began a series of demonstrations in France and America that distanced all previous performances with aeroplanes in either hemisphere. Wilbur Wright at Le Mans, France, on September 16, broke the European record for aëroplane flight by remaining in the air thirty-nine minutes and eighteen seconds, covering a distance of twenty-six miles; but Orville Wright had already made successive flights at Fort Myer, Va., of more than an hour each, having lengthened the period on September 12 to seventy-four minutes and twenty-four seconds, rising to an altitude of 250 feet. Thus these two Americans became almost simultaneously the world's champion aviators. Their machine is the result of many years of painstaking effort. It is as truly an American product as the cotton-gin or the sewing machine. In the course of the Government tests at Fort Myer one of those distressing accidents that so often accompany the development of inventions caused the death of Lieutenant Selfridge, the young army officer who had been detailed to assist in conducting the experimental flights, while Orville Wright himself barely escaped with his life. The breaking of the propeller caused the aëroplane to pitch suddenly to the ground from an altitude of forty feet. Both men were caught under the machine. Mr. Wright was seriously injured, but rapidly recovered.

Losses by Flood and Fire.

Disastrous floods in Georgia and the Carolinas late in August, affecting especially the city of Augusta and bringing ruin to the cotton crops over a wide area, were succeeded during the first week of September by forest fires that ravaged, in sections, a belt of territory reaching across the continent along both sides of the boundary line between the United States and Canada. Not only were many lives lost in these calamities, but property to the value of millions was destroyed, whole towns were wiped off the map, and thousands of families were left homeless and destitute. It does not appear that much could have been done by the hand of man to prevent or stay the desolation wrought by the Southern floods, but the devastating flames on our northern border had given ample warning of their approach. It had been a dry summer and all conditions favored just such a sweeping onrush of destruction as laid waste the city of Chisholm on the Mesaba iron range in northern Minnesota. For days the fires had raged in the woods around the town, and they might have been put out, but the people did not greatly dread them. When the danger was realized it was too late to save the doomed town. The same experience was repeated in scores of smaller settlements in the forests of Minnesota, Wisconsin, Michigan, and Canada. Only the help of timely rains removed the peril, and then but for an uncertain interval. Late in September fires were still burning in Canada, in Maine, in the Adirondack and Catskill mountain regions of New York State, and in the lumber districts of Pennsylvania. The thick blanket of smoke was hanging for days over the city of New York, and the pungent odor of burning trees was in the air.

What Law Can Do.

The people of Minnesota are beginning to see that their forest lands must be regulated far more strictly than at present,—not merely for the sake of perpetuating the lumber supply, but as a police measure, to insure the protection of the lives and property of the population. The State must exercise control over all forest lands, including those privately owned, for the safety and welfare of the community are paramount. This principle has been recognized by the State of Maine, and its rightfulness affirmed by the Supreme Court of the United States. If there had been in force in Minnesota a law compelling the cutting of "fire-breaks,"—open spaces at intervals throughout the forest,—and had all forest lands been vigilantly patroled, such a visitation as that of last month would have been averted, and such a saving would surely have compensated for the comparatively slight cost of enforcing so reasonable a statute. Meanwhile the federal Forest Service is alive to the gravity of the situation, and a special investigation has already been set on foot.

The Convict-Lease System of Georgia.

A committee of the Georgia Legislature was engaged during most of the summer in making a thorough investigation of the convict-lease system in vogue in that State. It has been the practice for many years for the State to lease convicts to contractors, thus making the State prison system pay its own way. Newspaper writers long ago charged that the convicts were inhumanly treated and it was farther alleged that a system of bribery had grown up among State officials connected with the leasing of prisoners. The investigations of the legislative committee seem to have fully confirmed the most sensational of the newspaper charges, and even to have revealed atrocities heretofore unmentioned. The Georgia newspapers, notably the Atlanta *Constitution,* characterize the operation of the leasing system under present conditions as barbaric in the extreme. It was to be expected that the outside press would visit its condemnation on the conditions revealed by this investigation, but the attitude of the Georgia newspapers leads one to believe that the people of the State are really aroused to the gravity of the situation and that long delay in the extinction of this infamous system will not be tolerated. Not the reformation, but the absolute overthrow of the system is demanded on all sides. The encouraging feature in this whole deplorable business is that the people of Georgia are thus aroused and that a wholesome demand for the abolition of convict leasing has been heard from one end of the State to the other. At the special session of the Legislature summoned to deal with this matter, the two houses, after nearly a month of discussion, finally came to agreement on the terms of a bill which it is believed will effect the abolition of the convict-lease system. The State has 2500 felony convicts and probably twice that number of misdemeanor convicts. All contracts for the lease of the felony convicts expire on March 31, 1909. After that date, according to the terms of the new law, all

convicts not taken by counties on a pro-rata distribution, not taken by municipalities at $100 a year, or not needed on the State farm or other State institution, will be disposed of at the discretion of the Governor and the prison commission. The new law was finally agreed upon in the closing hours of the session, on Saturday, September 19. Georgia's example should have a salutary effect on other Southern States, where similar conditions are believed to prevail.

A University Gift.

It is ceasing to be the practice of philanthropists to discriminate against State universities in the bestowal of princely gifts. Some years ago the University of California received an important benefaction from Mrs. Phoebe Hearst. More recently the benefits of the Carnegie Foundation were extended to State universities, and last month it became known that ex-Senator William F. Vilas, who died recently, had bequeathed to his alma mater, the University of Wisconsin, an amount of money which, administered as a trust fund, will ultimately realize an addition to the University's resources of not less than $30,000,000. After providing for a fixed income to other heirs during their lifetime, one-half of the income from the remainder of the estate (which now amounts to less than $3,000,000) is to go to the university for current expenses, while the other half is to be added to the principal. Thus the magic of compound interest will rapidly augment the permanent fund, while the university will at once begin to enjoy the benefits of the gift in the form of a material addition to its yearly income.

Some New Presidents.

Wisconsin is one of a series of Western State universities showing splendid growth and great wisdom and strength in administration. One of the most rapid in recent development is the University of Missouri, at Columbia, where President R. H. Jesse has accomplished a magnificent work through a long period of years, with the result that ill-health has obliged him to retire. He is succeeded by an educator of right like spirit and fine ability,—Dr. Albert Ross Hill, who enters upon his work with the new academic year. Missouri's other great institution is Washington University, at St. Louis, which is especially strong in its technical and scientific departments, and which was built up to its present position under the leadership of Chancellor Chaplin, who retired a year ago. This institution has found a new president in Dr. David Franklin Houston, who for several years has been president of the University of Texas, and who, though still a young man, like President A. R. Hill, is a scholar and an educational administrator of the very foremost rank. Dr. Henry Hopkins, the retiring president of Williams College, died abroad in August, and Professor Harry Garfield, of Princeton, who had been selected a year in advance as his successor, is now entering upon his work as head of the college, of which his father was the most famous student, while the late Dr. Hopkins was the son of its most famous president. The University of South Carolina, which, like some other Southern universities, has seen hard trials since the War, gives earnest of its intention to enter upon a new and modern period by securing for its presidency Dr. S. C. Mitchell, of Richmond College, Virginia, a distinguished scholar and orator, and a man of broad, national sympathies, in whose acquisition South Carolina makes a great gain.

Founders' Week in Philadelphia.

Two and a quarter centuries of Philadelphia's history will be graphically repeated in ceremony and pageant during the week beginning October 4. The city of William Penn was founded in the summer of 1683, and just after this issue of the REVIEW has reached most of its readers it will be celebrating its 225th anniversary. The Secretary of the Navy has promised to send thirteen warships, under command of a rear-admiral, to participate in the eminetly peaceful ceremonies on the occasion of this birthday celebration in the City of Brotherly Love. There will be all kinds of military, naval, civil, industrial, historic, and fraternal parades, exhibitions, conventions, athletic events, and reunions, which will be of national scope and interest,—besides much speech-making. The very early history of the city will be re-enacted in a series of gorgeous pageants, the entire week's events to be begun by a ringing of the old bell in Independence Hall. Representatives from Great Britain, Germany, France, Holland, and Sweden have been invited to participate in the ceremonies in recognition of the part the immigrants from those countries played in the early settlement and development of the city. The week's program will be closed with a regatta.

The Dutch and Senor Castro.

The Dutch Government has ascertained the attitude of the different European governments, as well as of our own, on the subject of the grievances Holland has against President Castro. This much was accomplished during the last week of August. It may, therefore, be confidently asserted that whatever action is taken by Queen Wilhelmina and her ministers in the Venezuelan matter will receive the sanction of the civilized world. Following upon the arrival in Holland of Mr. J. H. de Reuss, the Dutch Minister who was recently expelled from Venezuela, it was announced from The Hague that this diplomat had been "honorably relieved" of his duties at Caracas. The implication of this action of the Dutch Government that there have been errors on the Dutch side, an admission made also in the frank tone of the Dutch note sent to President Castro on September 6, served to strengthen the case of Holland. The Hague government, while expressing regret for and disapproval of the conduct of the mob toward the Venezuelan consul at Willemstad, Curaçao, claims that this did not justify the Venezuelan Government in expelling Mr. de Reuss. The Dutch note, moreover, demanded that by November 1 Venezuela revoke the embargo issued by President Castro on May 14 last, which resulted in the practical suppression of the trade of Curaçao. The mild and courteous language of the note evidently had some effect on the Venezuelan President, for on September 15 he removed the embargo on the movement of passengers between Venezuela and the Dutch West Indian ports. Whether or not Señor Castro will accede to the full demands of Holland before the time set depends probably upon just how far he believes the Dutch Government will go in forcing its demand.

Ten Years of Queen Wilhelmina.

The States-General of the Netherlands assembled on September 15, and although its debates on the Venezuelan question have not been made public, it was expected that before the beginning of the present month the government would be compelled to outline its foreign program. Meanwhile the little Dutch kingdom has been quietly celebrating a double anniversary in the life of its beloved monarch. During the same week last month Queen Wilhelmina commemorated her twenty-eighth birthday and the tenth anniversary of her formal ascension to the throne. The hopes of the Dutch people for an heir to the house of Orange have now, it is announced, been disappointed for the third time. The Queen's chances of living for many years yet, however, are good, and the Dutch, protected as they are by the perpetual neutrality agreement of the great powers of the Continent, go on their peaceful, prosperous way. During the ten years of her reign the young Queen has endeared herself to her people by her prudence and statesmanlike qualities as well as by the charm and kindliness of her personality.



THE LATEST PORTRAIT OF WILHELMINA, QUEEN OF HOLLAND.
(Who has recently celebrated the tenth anniversary of her accession to the throne.)

Belgium Annexes the Congo.

The Belgian Senate on September 9 adopted the Congo annexation treaty and the accompanying enabling bill, or so-called colonial character, which on August 20 had received the approval of the Chamber of Deputies after a consideration of more than ten months. After the

purely technical formality has been accomplished of notifying the signatory powers to the Berlin act of 1885 of the Belgian Government's assumption of sovereignty, King Leopold's misgovernment in the Congo State may be regarded as definitely past. Under this treaty Belgium takes over as a colonial possession the whole Congo State, including the crown domain with all its assets, a majority of the corporate stock in Congo concessions, and property valued at about $1,000,000. In return its binds itself to respect the rights of the holders of these concessions, to pay certain annuities for life to the King and his son and daughter, to spend $10,000,000 on public works in Belgium, and to assume responsibility for the liabilities of the Congo excepting interest on the Congo debt, which at present amounts to about $30,000,000. It is the aim of the Brussels government, Belgian papers are asserting, to organize the Congo as a colony, insuring "the same basis of progress, prosperity, and civilization as a British colony." The rest of the world is not so much concerned as to the private or material prosperity of the Congo as it is in the redemption of that dominion, twice as large as France and Germany combined, from the reproach of barbarism which has attached to it since King Leopold's rule began, and in some assurance that in the future it is to be administered with a proper respect for humanity and the rules of modern civilization.

Financial Corruption in Denmark.

A sensation such as has not marked Danish history for years was occasioned late in August by the discovery that Mr. P. A. Alberti, Minister of Justice, had on his own confession committed forgeries and frauds involving large sums of money (some reports say aggregating more than $6,000,000) in connection with the largest agricultural savings bank of the kingdom, of which he was president. More than 40,000 people are directly affected by the defalcations, which, it is announced, have ruined 15,000 families, caused an immense loss to the King himself, and depleted the national treasury by more than half a million dollars. Alberti was the dominant figure in the cabinet, a man of ability and force, and a member of the so-called "reform" government that has administered Danish affairs since 1901. The exposure of his misdoings resulted in the immediate fall of the ministry, which, headed by J. C. Christiansen, has been in office since January, 1905. Although none of the ministers was implicated with Alberti, they insisted upon resigning, agreeing, however, upon King Frederick's request, to continue to perform their duties until the extraordinary session of the Rigsdag, which was summoned to meet on September 28.

Is the European Balance Disturbed?

The past five years have seen radical and far reaching changes in the alliances or "understandings" by which the European balance is believed to be supported. At present there are six of these combinations. They are, named in chronological order: The Triple Alliance, consisting of Germany, Austro-Hungary, and Italy; the Dual Alliance, of France and Russia; the Anglo-Japanese alliance; the Anglo-French *entente cordiale,* or cordial understanding; the Algeciras treaty, in regard to Morocco; and the Anglo-Russian understanding. There are other partial, limited agreements and special treaties, but the groupings already referred to are the major factors in the European balance. That these may be radically affected by events apparently in no way related to them happening in widely separated parts of the world has been demonstrated rather strikingly during the past few years. Russia's defeat at the hands of Japan is generally held to have impaired the influence of the Triple Alliance, and it has been for a year or more the theme of political writers that the various alliances and understandings to which England is a party have been brought about with the express object of isolating Germany. The German Emperor and the German people are evidently impressed with this belief, if we may judge from the tone of the German press and recent speeches by the Kaiser himself.

The German Kaiser and Morocco.

It will be remembered that two years ago, when M. Delcasse was French Foreign Minister, the German Kaiser made his memorable speech at Tangier and precipitated the entire Morocco problem, resulting in the forced resignation of M. Delcasse, the apparent humiliation of France, and the calling of the Algeciras conference. The net result of this international gathering was a treaty, to which the United States was one of the signatories, virtually conceding the justice of France's claims and special interests, and commissioning France, with the assistance of Spain, to compel the Moorish Sultan, Abd-el-Aziz, to carry out certain reforms. Unprejudiced tes-



MULAI HAFID, THE NEW SULTAN OF MOROCCO.

(Mulai Hafid, who was proclaimed Sultan at Marrakesh on August 16, is the elder brother of the other Sultan. Born in 1873, five years before his brother, he is said to be well educated and a poet.)

timony goes far to prove that the French have, on the whole, acted with moderation and good sense in their diplomatic and military operations in the Moorish Empire, and that in conjunction with Spain the republic has been really furthering the work of civilization. The rebellion in the south, headed by Mulai Hafid, elder brother of Abd-el-Aziz, and the former's rise to power until (late in August) he signally defeated the armies of his brother and was proclaimed Sultan at Tangier, has devastated the country with civil war and greatly complicated the task of France.

Germany's Radical Change of Front.

Suddenly, on September 1, it was announced in the German press in connection with the statement of the return of Dr. Vassel, the German Consul-General at Fez, that the Berlin government had notified all the signatories of the Algeciras convention of its intention to officially recognize Mulai Hafid as Sultan. This announcement was made just before the beginning of the autumn maneuvers of the Germany army in Alsace-Lorraine and almost immediately after the recent peace-breathing speech of the German Kaiser, in the course of which he announced that the German Empire was determined to preserve the peace of Europe if it lay in her power. Dr. Vassel went further and, it is announced, has already assured Mulai Hafid that he may count on German recognition and assistance. A great deal of excited discussion of "Germany's brutal change of front" appeared in the press of France, Spain, and England, but the governments at Paris and Madrid contented themselves with the preparation of a joint note which was transmitted to the powers interested on September 14. The note courteously calls the attention of the powers to the state of affairs in Morocco, and maintains that before Mulai Hafid can be recognized as Sultan he ought to express adherence to the Algeciras act and the "measures involved in its application," and to confirm all other treaties and obligations of the former régime. Meanwhile the French army in Morocco had (on September 14) won a sweeping victory over the tribesmen. The new Sultan hastened to make a general acknowledgment of his obligations and intentions, but not sufficiently clear to satisfy France.



THE POSTAL CARD NOW BEING CIRCULATED IN TURKEY AS A COMMEMORATION OF THE PROMULGATION OF A CONSTITUTION.

The Kaiser and the Turk.

It is understood that the European powers generally approve the Franco-Spanish note, although, it was announced in the middle of September, the German reply would not be forthcoming for several weeks. It is confidently asserted in British, French, and Spanish diplomatic circles that the German proposal to recognize Mulai Hafid as the Sultan of Morocco before he has given definite and adequate assurances of his intentions in regard to the foreign relations of his empire was a bold attempt on the part of the Kaiser's government to destroy the Anglo-French understanding. French interests in Turkey are still important, and the German Government, it is believed, had aimed to offer adhesion to the Algeciras convention only in exchange for a free hand from France in Turkey. The Kaiser desired the support of France in his endeavor to secure the international financial guaranties for the construction of the Bagdad Railway, which must be sanctioned by the powers. The constitutional revolt in Turkey, however, has evidently upset the German calculations, and the new régime at Constantinople has already annulled the Bagdad Railway convention. It is to this new status of affairs in Turkey, then, that in all probability must be ascribed Germany's change of front in the Morocco problem.

Will the Turkish Sultan Be Deposed?

It was significant of what has taken place in Turkey that the celebration mass meeting held in New York City on September 7 should have been made up of Turks, Armenians, Albanians, Greeks, and Syrians,—and, of course, Americans,—all exulting in the attainment by Abdul Hamid's polyglot empire of the constitutional guaranties of liberty and equality before the law. Turkey's official representative in this country, Mundji Bey, who is Chargé d'Affaires at Washington, presided, speeches were made in six languages, and President Roosevelt sent a letter of hearty sympathy. The peaceful revolution which has freed Turkey from the frightful tyranny under which that country has groaned for thirty years has been so thorough that the Young Turk party now openly announces its purpose of deposing Abdul Hamid within a few months if he does not abdicate and of putting on the throne the Sultan's second brother, Reshad Effendi, the heir presumptive. Prince Reshad, who is now in his sixty-fourth year, is reported to be a man of education, integrity, and progressive views. The

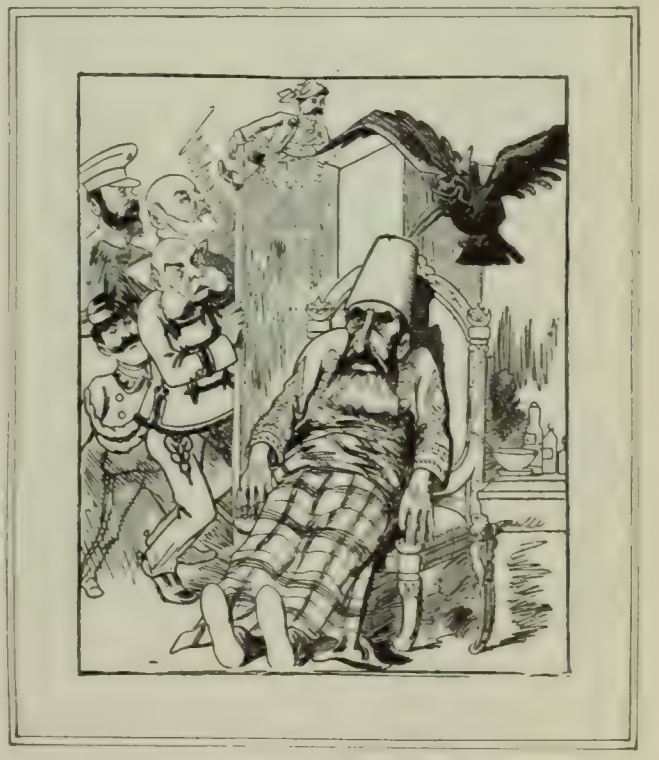
program of the Young Turk party, which is still directed largely from Paris, under the guiding hand of Ahmed-Riza, editor of the *Mechveret*, the reform organ, includes,—this journal informs us,—the reorganization of Turkish finances, which have been in a most chaotic condition for years; the immediate introduction of the primary, secondary, and higher educational methods; the adoption of universal military service, and such reform of the court administration "as shall persuade the Christian powers to assent to the abolition of the régime of exterritoriality."

Some International Bearings.

Three occurrences on the anniversary (the thirty-second) of Abdul Hamid's accession to the throne (August 31) augured well for the new régime in Turkey in its domestic as well as foreign affairs. The Sultan himself voluntarily gave up almost all his private crown lands to the national treasury. These are capable of yielding a revenue of $3,000,000 a year, and the gift indicates Abdul Hamid's sincerity in reform. On the same day the faithful Mohammedans celebrated in Medina, the holy city in west central Arabia, the completion of the railroad line from Damascus. This line will eventually be continued to the sacred Mecca and, it is the dream of the Turkish reformers, will ere many years awaken the whole peninsula to modern civilization. Finally, the telegram of congratulation on the anniversary sent by King Edward of England emphasizes the keen interest of the British monarch and the British people in the inauguration of a new era in the Ottoman government and recognizes the friendly attitude shown by the Turks since the revolution toward "Great Britain as an exemplar of national freedom." The new régime at Constantinople has not evinced any sympathy for the so-called "Young Egypt" movement organized some weeks ago at Geneva "to protest against the continued occupation of Egypt by Great Britain." Elsewhere in this issue of the REVIEW we give a more detailed statement of the Turkish revolution, with some pertinent comment.

World Honors to Tolstoy.

It is only a few weeks since the great Russian writer and reformer, Count Leo Tolstoy, openly charged the highest officials of the empire, from the Czar down, and including the dignitaries of the Russian church, with the responsibility for crimes and atrocities greater than anything the revolutionaries have done. It is therefore perhaps not remarkable that the Russian bureaucracy should have forbidden any concerted public celebration of the eightieth birthday of the novelist, which fell on September 10, or that the Holy Synod should have addressed an appeal to "all true Russian believers" not to take part in the celebrations. In spite of this action of church and state, however, the cable dispatches show us that the friends and admirers of Tolstoy throughout the empire and the world were able to accord public as well as private honors to the author-reformer. At various places throughout Russia public monuments were dedicated to Tolstoy or public thoroughfares and buildings named after him. The University of St. Petersburg elected him to honorary membership in its faculty. In the capital the newspapers issued Tolstoy jubilee numbers. The *Novoye Vremya*, which is usually the organ of the reactionaries and bureaucrats, calls Tolstoy the Shakespeare of the nineteenth century, and stigmatizes the appeal of the Holy Synod against celebrating his birthday as "a revival of the spirit of the Spanish Inquisition, breathing the very spirit of the dark ages." Tolstoy himself is not in rugged health, and it is reported that the bitter opposition of the Russian church has had the effect of making him noticeably weaker. On another page this month we



IS HE REALLY THE SICK MAN OF EUROPE?
CHORUS OF EUROPEAN POWERS: "Why, he's reviving again!"
From *Silhouette* (Paris).

present an outline of the main facts in Tolstoy's life and a survey of his philosophic ideas and their influence.

The New British Patent Law.

Two topics of widely different nature may be said to have engaged the attention of the majority of Englishmen last month. The first, which did not bulk large in the newspaper columns, was the expiration (on August 28) of the year of grace allowed to foreigners under the new British Patent act. Henceforth patents in the United Kingdom may be revoked "after a reasonable interval, unless the patented article is manufactured or the patented process operated to an adequate extent in Great Britain." As a result of this legislation a great many manufacturers of patented articles have already started works on British soil and many others are preparing to comply with the law as rapidly as possible. As a consequence, it is estimated that at least $130,000,000 in manufacturing interests will be invested in the British Isles,— a large advent of capital which cannot fail to have an immense influence on British industries. It will undoubtedly help to solve, temporarily at least, the problem of the unemployed, and the effect will be seen on British trade with Germany, France, and the United States. The result will be an actual, if not nominal, modification of the British policy of free trade, since the law will amount to a protection of British industries, particularly against the vast amount of goods "made in Germany" and the manufactured products of the United States, many of which under the old system were sold in England much cheaper than they could be produced there. It will afford employment for many thousands of British workmen at home, and in consequence have some effect in lessening the vast number of workmen who have left the British Isles during the past decade.

Effect of the Law on Foreign Countries.

How the foreign countries affected will receive this remains to be seen. At two recent conferences of industrial workers, however,—the International Congress for the Protection of Industrial Property (generally known as the Trade and Patent Congress), deliberating from August 26 to 30 at Stockholm, and the International Social Democratic Congress at Nuremberg, Germany, beginning September 14,—the subject was discussed in detail. The general question of the welfare of British argument at home and abroad was the subject of animated discussion at the forty-third Trade Union Congress, which began its sessions at Nottingham on September 7, and represented a membership of 1,750,000. This congress passed a great number of resolutions, demanding among other things universal suffrage, the abolition of plural voting, the extension of the Foreign Enlistment act to prevent British workmen from going abroad to fill the places of strikers, a Compulsory Arbitration act, purely secular education, an eight-hour-day, abolition of the House of Lords, and the creation of a ministry of labor in the cabinet.

The Eucharistic Congress in London.

The other event was of more spectacular interest. During the first week in September the first Catholic Eucharistic Congress was held in London, under the presidency of Cardinal Vannutelli, one of the most distinguished members of the Roman Curia, who is also Papal Legate,—the first legate in London for three centuries. At the close of the congress the Catholic Archbishop of Westminster, Dr. Bourne, arranged a procession through the streets of the British capital, during which it was intended to carry the host. A number of Protestant societies, forming what is known as the Protestant Alliance, invoked the old law prohibiting a procession carrying the host through the streets of a British city, and with much reluctance the Prime Minister, through the Home Secretary, was forced to request those in charge of the ceremonies to omit the carrying of the host and the wearing of ecclesiastical vestments. The procession, however, took place, and, although there was some disorder, the event passed off on the whole without the anticipated violence or riots. During the procession the Cardinal was escorted by Cardinal Gibbons, of Baltimore; Cardinal Sancha, of Toledo, Spain, and a bodyguard of English peers, among whom the Duke of Norfolk, a devout Catholic, was the most prominent. Processions of this sort have taken place during the eighty years that have elapsed since the passage of the act of Catholic emancipation, and there has been no serious opposition exhibited. The Catholic dignitaries now announce that they will endeavor to bring before Parliament at its next session a moderate but convincing request for the repeal of the old anti-Catholic laws, with the exception of that one which prescribes that the English monarch shall always be a Protestant. The question of the declaration

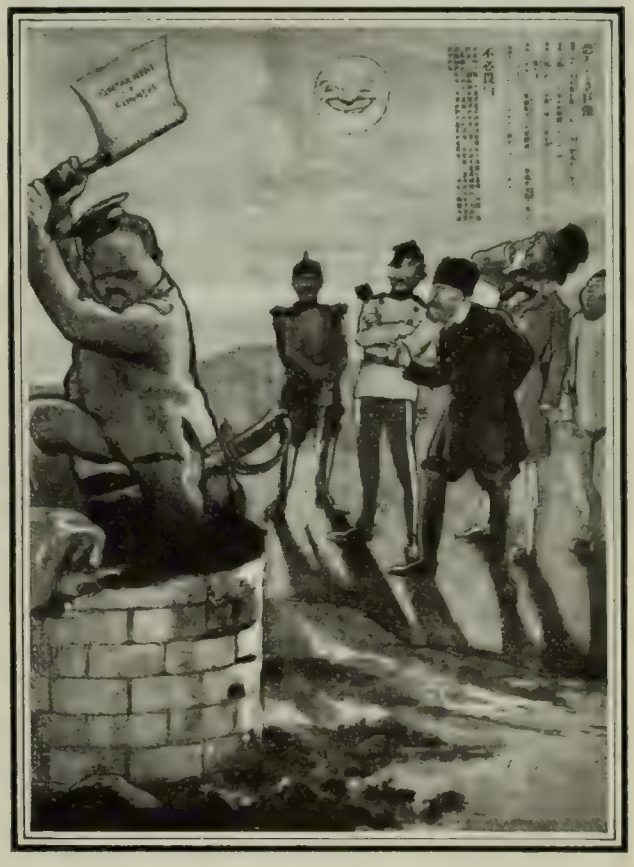
against Catholicism which the King of England is obliged to make on his accession to the throne was discussed at the conference, and even in the comment of the Protestant press it is admitted that such a declaration, highly offensive as it is to a great number of loyal Englishmen, is not necessary to secure a Protestant succession, and therefore should be abandoned.

The Fleet En Route to Japan.

Elaborate preparations, we are told, are being made in Japan for the reception and entertainment of the American battleship fleet when it reaches Yokohama, where it is due on the 17th of the present month. It is announced that in order to demonstrate the sincerity of Japanese friendliness for the American people a squadron of Japanese warships will meet the American fleet as it approaches the coast of Japan and act as an escort to Yokohama, one war vessel being assigned to each American ship. If the welcome even approaches in heartiness those extended at the New Zealand and Australian ports the American officers and sailormen will certainly be received right royally. During the week spent at Melbourne the ovations which characterized the reception of the fleet at Sydney were repeated. On September 11 the fleet arrived at the port of Albany, West Australia, where it was enthusiastically received, remaining for several days, during which coal was taken on for the long run to the Philippines and Japan. Manila, it was expected, would be reached on the first of the present month. After a stay of ten days at the capital of the Philippines the ships will depart for Yokohama for a week's stay, returning to Manila on November 7.

Retrenchment in Japan.

It is evident that the new Katsura ministry in Japan is earnest and sincere in its announced determination to inaugurate and carry through a policy of national retrenchment. Following upon the statement in the official journals that the national exposition planned to be held in Tokio in 1912 is to be postponed until 1917, the daily papers of the larger cities of Japan gave wide currency to a speech by Premier Katsura, made before the Imperial Bankers' Club early in September, to the general effect that the imperial government "is determined to effect a complete balance between the national income and the national expenditures at as early a date as possible." The postponement of the exposition, due primarily to the fact that the government cannot put through the Diet in time a bill for an appropriation large enough, was announced formally to Secretary Root by President Roosevelt in a letter on September 1, in which the President refers in the most complimentary terms to the attainment by Japan of her present rank among the world powers, and heartily commends the determination to hold the exposition in 1917, which will be the fiftieth anniversary of the accession of the present Japanese Emperor. The President said further: "The people of the United States hold for Japan a peculiar feeling of regard and friendship, and no other nation is more anxious than we are to help make the exposition a success in every way." In the speech already referred to, Premier Katsura announced that retrenchment would take place along the whole line of national expenditure and also that it would "involve heavy sacrifices in the War and Navy departments." In the postponement of national works previously undertaken alone there is to be a total saving of $179,000,000.



IS JAPAN ACTUALLY AS WARLIKE AS SHE LOOKS?

RUSSIA: "What a terrible weapon!"

AMERICA: "Didn't I tell you the Japs were spoiling for a fight?"

GERMANY: "That fellow alarms me."

FRANCE: "Oh! Don't worry. He is only going to cut off expenses and decrease taxes."

From *Tokio Puck.*

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

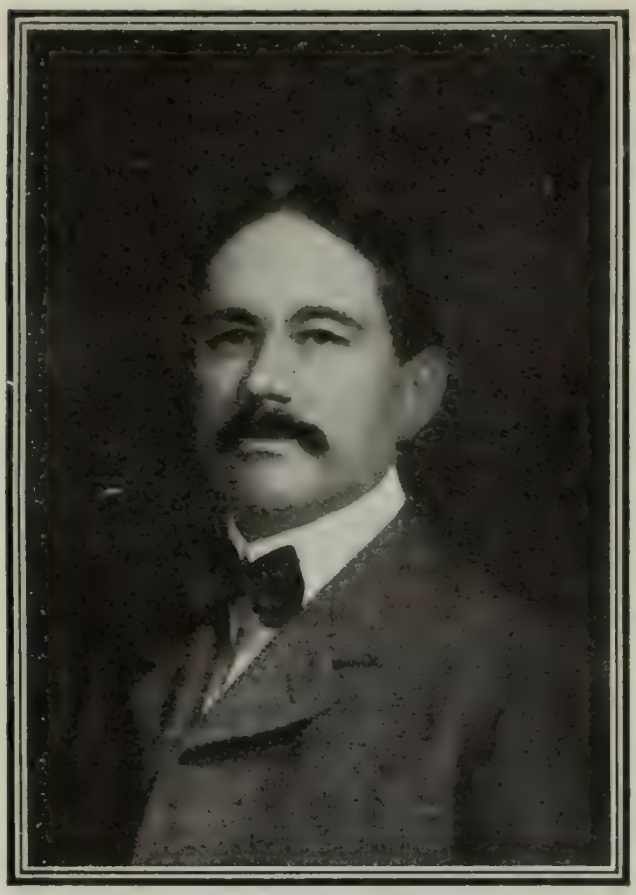
(From August 21 to September 29, 1908.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

August 21.—W. J. Bryan delivers an address upon the tariff at Des Moines, Iowa.

August 22.—Mr. Taft announces his purpose, if elected President, to call a special session of Congress for tariff revision as soon as possible after March 4....In the Delaware Republican primaries, S. S. Pennewill is nominated for Governor.

August 24.—A conference of New England Republican leaders is held with Chairman Hitchcock, of the National Committee, at Boston....Richard L. Hand, the commissioner to whom the charges against District-Attorney Jerome, of New York, were referred by Governor Hughes, reports that all the charges are disproved by the evidence submitted.



HON. GEORGE L. LILLEY.

(Republican candidate for Governor of Connecticut.)

August 25.—In the South Carolina Democratic primaries, Governor Ansel is renominated.

August 26.—Governor Fort, of New Jersey, threatens to call out the troops and, if necessary, to convene the Legislature in special session to deal with the enforcement of the excise laws in Atlantic City.

August 27.—William J. Bryan speaks at Topeka, Kan., in advocacy of his plan for Government guarantee of bank deposits.

August 30.—The threat made by Governor Fort, of New Jersey, to call out the State troops to enforce the excise laws results in the closing of all the saloons in Atlantic City on Sunday.

September 1.—The Republican candidate for Governor of Vermont, Lieutenant-Governor Prouty, receives a plurality of 29,376....In the Wisconsin primaries United States Senator Isaac Stephenson receives the Republican nomination to succeed himself; Governor James O. Davidson is renominated; Congressman John J. Jenkins, of the Eleventh District, is defeated by Irvin L. Lenroot, former Speaker of the Assembly....In the Nebraska primaries Governor Sheldon and all the Congressmen are renominated.

September 2.—Thomas L. Hisgen and W. R. Hearst start on an Independence Party speaking tour of the West....Idaho Republicans nominate James H. Brady for Governor, Weldon B. Heyburn for United States Senator, and Thomas R. Hamer for Congressman.

September 3.—The special grand jury investigating the recent race riots at Springfield, Ill., adjourns after bringing in 117 indictments, including four policemen.

September 4.—Governor Hanly, of Indiana, calls a special session of the Legislature to meet on September 18.

September 5.—Governor Hughes, of New York; Senator Beveridge, of Indiana, and Governor Harris, of Ohio, speak at the opening of the Republican campaign at Youngstown, Ohio.

September 8.—"Stand-pat" Republicans deadlock the Iowa Legislature, blocking the selection of Governor Cummins for the United States Senatorship....In the Washington State primaries Congressman Wesley L. Jones receives the Republican nomination for United States Senator....In the second Democratic primaries in South Carolina E. D. Smith is nominated for United States Senator to succeed Senator Gary.

September 9.—Connecticut Republicans nominate George L. Lilley for Governor.

September 10.—Judges Gray and Dallas, in the United States Circuit Court for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania, decide that the commodities clause of the Hepburn Railroad act, designed to prevent the coal-carrying railroads from owning mines, is unconstitutional.

September 14.—Bert M. Fernald, Republican candidate for Governor of Maine, receives a plurality of about 7,800 votes in a total of 140,000, the largest vote cast in the State since 1888....George W. Donaghey (Dem.) is elected Governor of Arkansas by a plurality of 60,000.

September 15.—New York Republicans renominate Governor Charles E. Hughes on the first ballot at Saratoga....Utah Republicans

nominate United States Marshal William Spry for Governor and Representative Joseph Howell for Congress....Delaware Democrats nominate Roland G. Paynter for Governor.

September 16.—New York Democrats nominate Lewis S. Chanler for Governor.

September 17.—New Hampshire Republicans nominate Henry B. Quinby for Governor.... W. R. Hearst makes public correspondence showing Senator Foraker's connection with the Standard Oil Company.

September 18.—Senator Foraker explains that his retention as counsel by the Standard Oil Company ceased before there was federal action against that company.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

August 21.—It is announced that the Turkish Government has decided to appoint a British adviser for the reorganization of the Turkish navy and a French financial adviser.

August 24.—The Conservative National Convention of Cuba nominates Gen. Mario Menocal for President and Rafael Montoro for Vice-President....The president of the first Russian Duma is released from prison in Moscow; ten other Deputies imprisoned for signing the Viborg manifesto are also released.

August 27.—The Belgian Senate begins consideration of the Congo treaty.

August 28.—The Persian Council of Ministers resigns owing to the Shah's demand that it pass four bills.

August 29.—The Japanese Government decides to curtail expenditures by $100,000,000; the exposition will be postponed.

August 30.—The Portuguese Chamber of Deputies passes the budget, in which the deficit is estimated at $2,000,000.

September 2.—The Turkish Government makes arrangements with the Ottoman Bank for a loan of over $22,000,000.

September 3.—The Zayista and Miguelista factions of the Cuban Liberal party agree to nominate Jose Miguel Gomez for President and Alfredo Zayas for Vice-President.

September 4.—The Russian Government issues an edict that professors in the universities must renounce membership in parties not recognized by the government.

September 9.—The rapid increase in the imperial debt causes the German Ministry of Finance to take action leading to a decided increase in taxes....The Belgian Senate passes the Congo annexation treaty and endorses the action of the Chamber of Deputies regarding the debt.

September 12.—Governor Magoon issues a decree fixing November 14 as the date of the Cuban Presidential election....The Danish cabinet resigns at the King's request, Premier Christiansen having been compromised by vouching for the honesty of former Minister of Justice Alberti, arrested for bank frauds.

September 14.—The Young Egypt party forms an organization at Geneva.

September 15.—The police of St. Petersburg, Russia, arrest eighty-five persons and seize bombs and documents showing an intention to reopen a campaign of terrorism.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

August 22.—Turkey recalls its Ambassadors at Berlin and Vienna and its Minister at Belgrade.

August 23.—The Dutch Foreign Office refuses to agree to a compromise with Venezuela.

August 24.—It is reported that President Castro has stopped passenger traffic between Venezuela and West Indian ports.

August 27.—The Congress of the International Patent Union is in session at Stockholm, Sweden.

September 1.—The Franco-American tariff commissions end their work at Paris, agreements having been reached on all points under discussion....France and Spain announce their policy in Morocco; the other powers signatory to the Algeciras convention are left free to recognize Mulai Hafid as Sultan on condition that he meet certain demands.

September 6.—Holland demands of Venezuela that President Castro revoke before November 1 the decree affecting the trade of Curaçao.

September 16.—Holland, at the request of Germany and Italy, issues a request to the powers to send delegates to The Hague to regulate international money transfers.

September 17.—Chancellor von Bulow of Germany, in addressing the Interparliamentary Union at Berlin, pledges the co-operation of Germany in the interest of the world's peace.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

August 22.—The army of Sultan Abd-el-Aziz is defeated at Marrakesh; El Hafid is proclaimed at Tangier....Count Zeppelin announces that out of the surplus $750,000 given him to replace his destroyed airship he will found an aeronautic institute.

August 23.—Forty persons are drowned by the wrecking of the Norwegian coasting steamer *Folgefonden,* near Skonediks....Fifteen hundred houses are destroyed by fire in the Stamboul quarter of Constantinople.

August 26.—In the foundering of the British steamer *Duncarn,* off the coast of Japan, fifty-two lives are lost.

August 27.—The Venezuelan Civil Court of First Instance fines the French Cable Company $5,000,000 on the ground that the company aided the Matos revolt....The Japanese Government decides to postpone the international exposition until 1917....The loss from floods at Augusta, Ga., is estimated at nearly $1,000,000.

August 29.—It is reported that London has the greatest number of unemployed in its history.

August 30.—The first European Baptist Congress is opened at Berlin....Fire in the business district of New Orleans destroys property valued at between $1,000,000 and $2,000,000.

August 31.—The officers of the American battleship fleet are formally welcomed at Melbourne....The president of the United Mine Workers issues an order calling off the strike in the Birmingham, Ala., district....The American



THE LATE EX-SENATOR WILLIAM F. VILAS, OF WISCONSIN.

(In his will Colonel Vilas has created a trust fund for the benefit of the University of Wisconsin. See page 404.)

Olympic team receives a hearty welcome from President Roosevelt at Oyster Bay.

September 1.—Many vessels are driven ashore by a heavy gale along the English and French coasts.

September 2.—Fifteen thousand Moorish tribesmen are repulsed with heavy losses by the French garrison at Boudenib on the Algérian frontier....William H. Taft reviews the Grand Army of the Republic parade at Toledo.

September 3.—Col. Henry M. Nevius, of New Jersey, is elected commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic....The will of the late Frederick Cooper Hewitt makes bequests of $1,500,000 to the Metropolitan Museum of Art and $2,000,000 to the New York Post-Graduate Hospital....Navigation between Pittsburg and Cincinnati on the Ohio River is tied up for the first time in five years; the stage of water is reported to be the lowest in twenty years.

September 4.—The American battleship fleet sails from Melbourne....Fire destroys 4000 houses in Niigata, Japan....Fire destroys the business section of the mining camp at Rawhide, Nev., with a loss of $750,000, making 3000 persons homeless.

September 5.—Forest fires in Minnesota and Wisconsin destroy towns and cause damage amounting to millions of dollars....A tablet in memory of Gen. Count de Rochambeau is unveiled at Newport, R. I.

September 6.—M. Delagrange, in his aeroplane at Issy, covers fifteen and one-quarter miles in twenty-nine minutes, fifty-four and four-fifths seconds....Police disperse a mob of Socialists and unemployed persons at Glasgow....The American battleships *Maine* and *Alabama* arrive at Suez.

September 7.—It is announced that Miss Annie S. Peck, the American woman, has succeeded in reaching the summit of Mt. Huascaran, in Peru; she estimates the altitude at 26,000 feet (see page 488)....The British Trade Union Congress meets at Nottingham.

September 8.—M. Alberti, former Danish Minister of Justice, is arrested, charged with extensive bank frauds....The Porto Rican House of Delegates meets in extra session....Constitution Island, in the Hudson River, near West Point, is presented to the Government by Mrs. Russell Sage and Miss Anna Bartlett Warner, for use in connection with the Military Academy.

September 9.—A death from cholera is reported in St. Petersburg, Russia; the disease is reported as spreading in Siberia....In an aeroplane ascension at Fort Myer, Va., Orville Wright remains in the air sixty-two minutes and fifteen seconds.

September 10.—The American battleship fleet arrives at Albany, Australia, after a voyage of 1300 miles from Melbourne....Hundreds of Russians visit Count Leo Tolstoy on the occasion of his eightieth birthday anniversary (see page 443)....The *St. Vincent*, a British battleship of the *Dreadnought* type, is successfully launched.....Orville Wright remains aloft in his aeroplane at Fort Myer, Va., for sixty-five minutes and fifty-two seconds.

September 11.—Orville Wright makes an aeroplane flight of one hour, ten minutes, and twenty-six seconds....Forest fires break out afresh in Minnesota; thousands of persons are rendered homeless.

September 12.—The Gross dirigible balloon makes a successful flight of thirteen hours in Germany....Orville Wright makes an aeroplane flight of seventy-four minutes and twenty-four seconds at Fort Myer, Va.

September 13.—A procession of the papal legate and prelates attending the Eucharistic Congress in London is held without ceremonial features.

September 14. Sven Hedin, the explorer, reports valuable discoveries in Tibet....Extensive forest fires are reported in Ontario, Canada.... Sixty-four deaths from cholera are reported in St. Petersburg, the mortality being over 25 per cent of the cases.

September 15.—The *Parseval* flexible airship makes a trip of eleven and a quarter hours.

September 16.—Wilbur Wright makes an aeroplane trip at Le Mans, France, lasting thirty-nine minutes, eighteen and three-fifths seconds.

September 17.—Deaths from cholera in St. Petersburg number 115 in twenty-four hours.... By the breaking of a propeller blade, Orville Wright's aeroplane is dashed to earth at Fort Myer, Va., causing the death of Lieut. Thomas E. Selfridge and serious injuries to Mr. Wright ....Fire destroys valuable books and other

treasures in the library of the Johns Hopkins University at Baltimore.

September 18.—Over 800 new cases of cholera are reported in St. Petersburg in thirty-six hours ....The American battleship fleet leaves Australia for Manila....Rain checks the Canadian forest fires.

September 19.—Mortality in the cholera epidemic in St. Petersburg increases to more than 50 per cent.

September 20.—Four hundred new cases of cholera are reported in St. Petersburg in the last twenty-four hours....Fifty-eight new cases of cholera and nineteen deaths are reported from Manila for twenty-four hours....Forest fires in Maine are held in check....Governor Hoke Smith, of Georgia, signs a bill putting an end to the convict-lease system in that State.

OBITUARY.

August 23.—Baron Speck von Sternburg, German Ambassador to the United States, 56.... Former Governor Nathan Oakes Murphy, of Arizona, 59.

August 24.—Archdeacon Bevan, 85.

August 25.—Antoine Henri Becquerel, the French scientist, 56....Sir Eyre Massey Shaw, for thirty years head of the London Fire Brigade, 78....Sir George Barclay Bruce, C.B., 87.

August 26.—"Tony" Pastor, the New York vaudeville actor-manager, 76.

August 27.—Ex-Senator William F. Vilas, of Wisconsin, 68....Rev. Donald Sage Mackay, D.D., of New York City, 45.

August 28.—George P. Rowell, of New York, a well-known advertising man, 70....Ex-Gov. Eugene Semple, of Washington Territory, 68 ....Prince Tarkhan Nawravov, the Russian biologist, 58....The Duc de Douveauville, 83.

August 29.—Rear-Admiral Edward Fithian, U. S. N., retired, 88....The Earl of Ross, F.R.S., 68.

August 30.—Frederick C. Hewitt, a retired banker of Owego, N. Y., 69....Lieut.-Gen. Alexander P. Stewart, of the Confederate Army, 87.

September 1.—Rear-Admiral Henry Glass, U. S. N., retired, 65....Brig.-Gen. John W. Clous, U. S. A., retired, 71.

September 2.—Capt. G. A. Merriam, U. S. N., commandant of the Portsmouth Navy Yard, 58. ....Brig.-Gen. Calvin DeWitt, U. S. A., retired, 68.

September 3.—Lionel Sackville Sackville-West, Lord Sackville, formerly British Minister to the United States, 81.

September 4.—Commissioner-General of Immigration Frank P. Sargent, 54....Brig.-Gen. Augustus W. Corliss, U. S. A., retired, 71.... Alexander Troup, editor and publisher of the New Haven *Union*, 68....John A. Hall, president of the Massachusetts Mutual Life Insurance Company, 68.

September 5.—John J. Emery, a New York millionaire, 75.

September 10.—Dr. Max Falk, a famous Hungarian journalist and politician, 80.

September 13.—Gardner Dexter Hiscox, a writer on scientific subjects, 86.

September 14.—Francisco Mariano Quinones, a prominent Porto Rican, 80....Dr. Hosea



THE LATE DR. HENRY HOPKINS.
(President, until last June, of Williams College.)

Smith, father of Governor Hoke Smith, of Georgia, 88.

September 15.—John Churton Collins, the essayist and lecturer, 60....Giovanni P. Morosini, the New York broker and banker, 74.

September 16.—Justice Thomas B. McFarland, of the California Supreme Court, 80.

September 17.—Rev. G. Parsons Nichols, D.D., of Binghamton, N. Y., 71....Rev. John Baudinelli, formerly provincial of the Passionist Fathers in the United States and Mexico, 74.

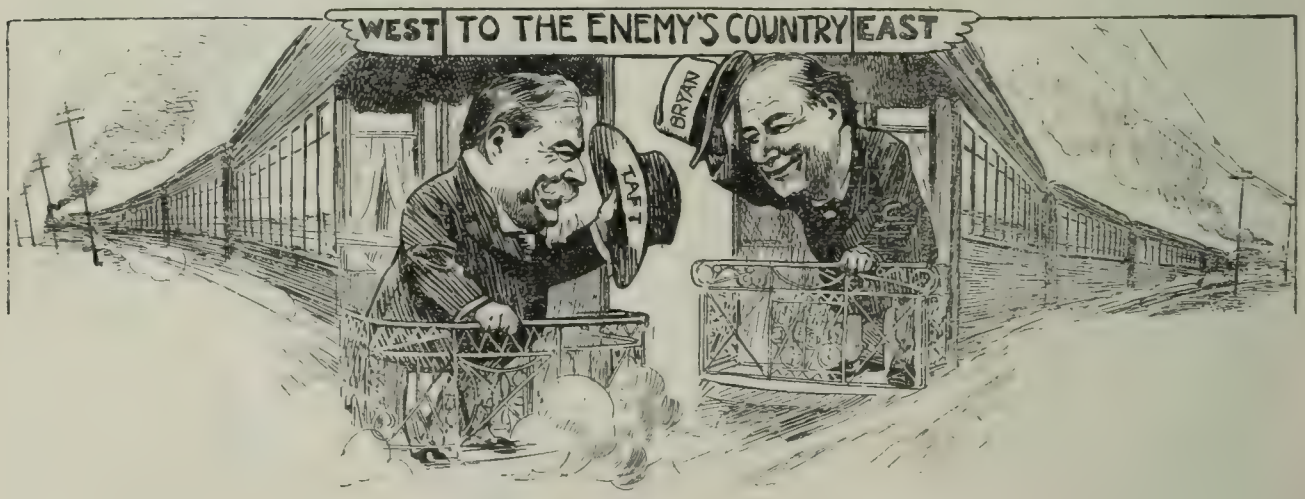
September 19.—Alexander Wilder, a well-known physician and author, 85.

September 20.—Pablo de Sarasate, the Spanish violinist, 64.

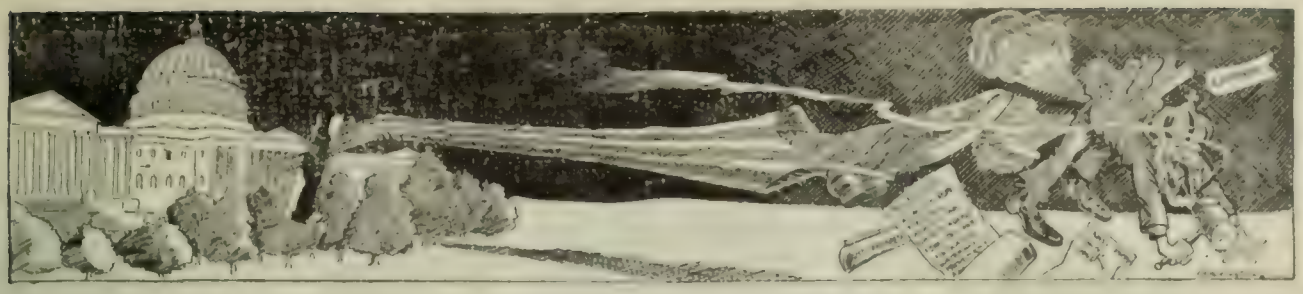
SOME CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



IN THE LIGHT OF THE HARVEST MOON.
From the *Times-Star* (Cincinnati).



From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



CANNON MUST BE FIRED!

From the *Post* (Cincinnati).



JUST MAINE SARDINES.

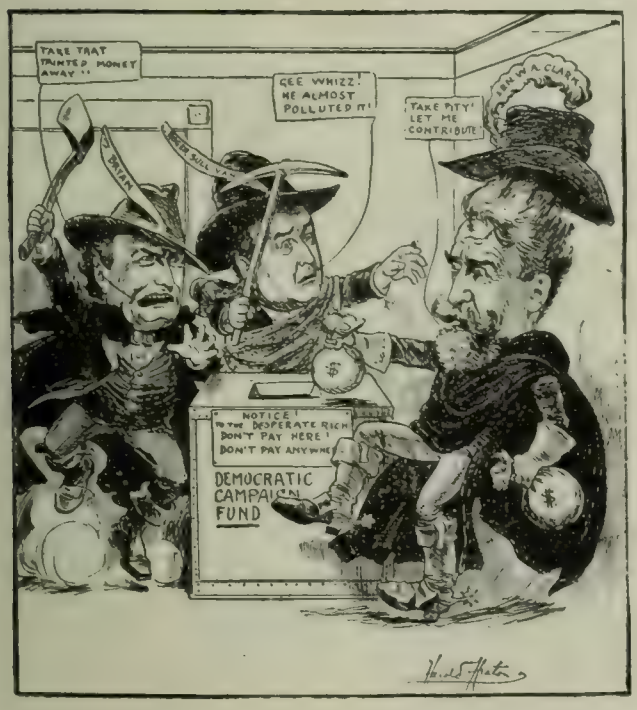
TAFT: "It's all right; I didn't ask for whale.



VERMONT MAPLE SYRUP.

TAFT: "Excuse me, Bill, but I like plenty with mine."

From the *Daily News* (Chicago).





THE DESPERATE RICH FOILED AGAIN!

From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).



FORAKER HELPS TO KIDNAP THE COLORED VOTE.

From the *Herald* (New York).



THE WAY THE WIND BLOWS.

From the *Globe* (New York).



THE POLITICAL SEERESS.

The lady indicates, by a 28,000 plurality in her State election, another national victory for the Republican party.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



MARSE HENRY WATTERSON TO THE RESCUE. (See opposite page.)
From the *Herald* (New York).



"BOOTS AND SADDLES."
(Taft leaves his front porch and takes the field.)
From the *Globe* (New York).

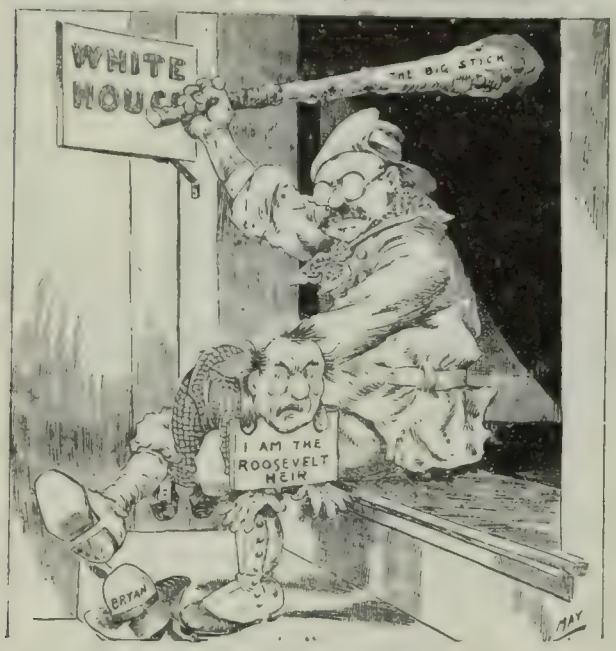


MR. TAFT CHANGES HIS BAIT.
(Apropos of his decision to make speeches.)
From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).



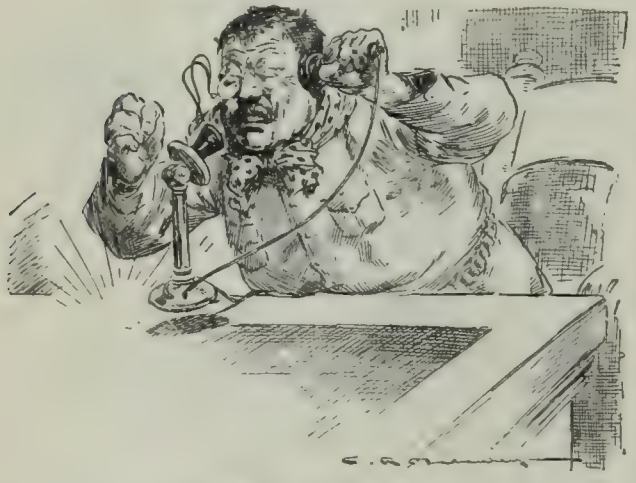
WONDROUS HARMONY.

From the *Chronicle* (San Francisco).



THE PRESIDENT (to Bryan): "You'll call me papa, will you?"

From the *Journal* (Detroit).



A LIVELY CONVENTION.

The President interested in the New York State Convention.

From the *World* (New York).



WHEN THE SLEEPER AWAKES—"DO THE PEOPLE RULE?"

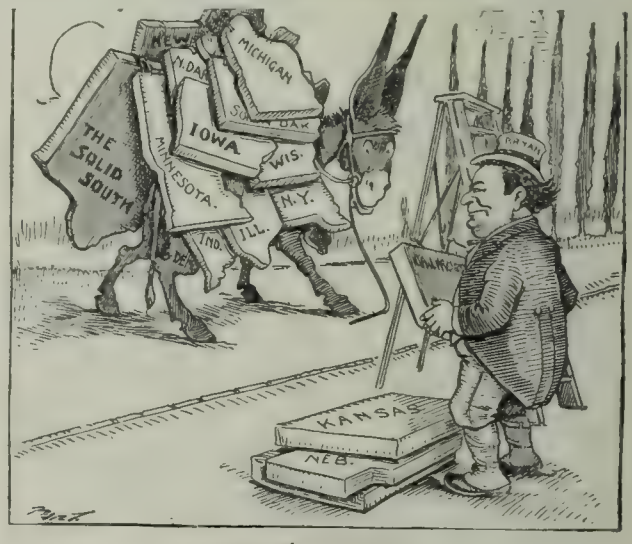
From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia).



DEBIT OF CREDIT?

G. O. P.: "'Pon my soul, Governor Hughes, I don't know whether to class you as an asset or a liability!"

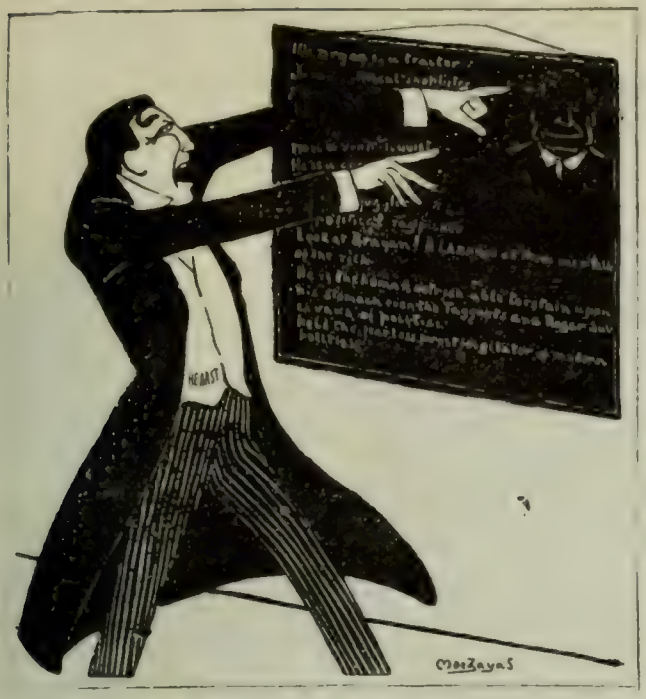
From the *Sun* (Baltimore).



BRYAN'S CLAIMS.

THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY: "Say, Bill, aren't you putting it on pretty thick? you know I can't carry half these States."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



A BUNCH OF ADMIRATION.

"Mr. Bryan is a traitor."

"He is a political shoplifter."

"He is a ventriloquist."

"He is a juggler and a political ragpicker."

"Look at Bryan! A Lazarus at the dinner table of the rich."

"He is the human ostrich, able to retain upon his stomach even the Taggarts and Roger Sullivans of politics."

"He is the fearless prestidigitateur of modern politics."

(Mr. Hearst's portrait of Bryan.)

From the *Evening World* (New York).



EVICTED!

"There is no Democratic party. There is only a Bryan party."—W. R. Hearst.

From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



ABOUT READY TO WALK.

UNCLE SAM: "Say, Maggie, let's see if she can go it alone."

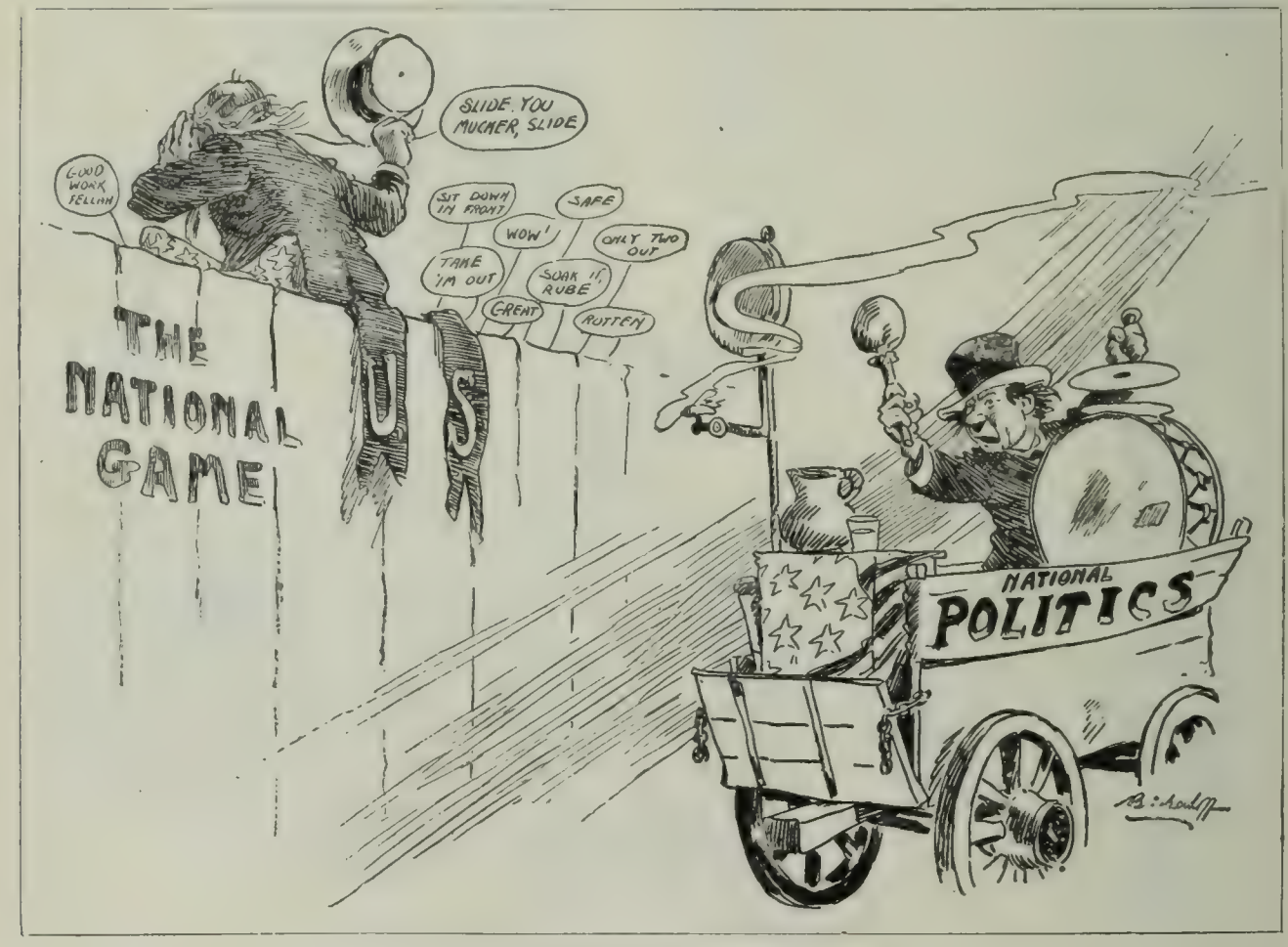
From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



THE LARGEST STONE IN THE LOT.

UNCLE SAM: "I've got a four years' job for the chap who can get that stone rolled into line."

From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica).



CAN'T DRAW THE CROWD.

"Gee! I can't get 'em till that is over with."

From the *Leader* (Cleveland).

MR. BRYAN'S THIRD CAMPAIGN.

BY JOSEPHUS DANIELS

(Chairman of Press Bureau, Democratic National Committee.)

EVENTS are at last preparing the American people for the election of Mr. Bryan to the Presidency, and nothing more certainly demonstrates this fact than the campaign that he and his managers are now conducting. It is a campaign that befits Mr. Bryan's splendid growth as a statesman, that is worthy of the best traditions of his reunited party, and that measures up to the high standard of intelligence and patriotism of his great and proud country. Mr. Bryan, always secure in the affections of Mr. Lincoln's plain people, has won many recruits from the intellectuals of both parties within late years. By persistence, by unswerving purpose, by calmness and faith in the face of the most determined opposition ever brought against any man in our public life, and by the sheer force of mental growth, the Democratic candidate has brought to his side many strong and powerful men who scorned him, ridiculed him, and spat upon him figuratively. There is not a man in our public life to-day who could have with Mr. Bryan's spirit of tolerance and magnanimity survived this opposition.

The Democratic campaign has been organized and is being conducted with a view of crowning the work of its candidate,—that is, to reach and win over those who not only refused to vote for him, but refuse to believe that it was ever possible to elect him. As distinguished from the two previous campaigns of Mr. Bryan, this one is more literary than oratorical, more impersonal than personal, more intellectual than emotional. It is far less spectacular, passionate, and vehement in manner; it is a calm, intelligent approach to men's reason and good sense.

A CAMPAIGN OF THE PRINTING-PRESS.

Although the present campaign is inspired and sustained by the matchless oratory of Mr. Bryan and the speeches of such men as Mr. Kern, Governor Johnson, Judge Alton B. Parker, and many others, it is more than ever a reading campaign, and is being conducted by a group of distinguished men from that class who edit the reading of the American people—the editors. Mr. Bryan, from his own personal experience with a hostile press in former campaigns, and from his experience as an editor himself, knew the sort of men he needed to help him win the election of 1908. The campaign is in the hands of editors, men who study and weigh words from the standpoint of the human interest in them. An orator craves the ears of men, an editor wants their eyes; a reader does not wrangle and dispute with the printed page. He either reads it or puts its out of his sight, and in either case the mood to cry "demagogue" and lose his balance of judgment is not awakened in him, as in listening to the sonorous sentences of an orator. That is the psychological key of the Democratic campaign of 1908.

If one glances back for a moment at two of the great historical contests for the Presidency,—those of Clay and Blaine,—he will observe that superb oratory was more of a handicap than an aid to the candidates, and Mr. Bryan from his own experience is convinced of this fact. On the other hand, this is the only campaign in many years in which the Republican candidate has been forced to take the stump. It augurs well for Democrats, for it not only shows an apathy in Republican ranks, but an actual desertion from the ranks that calls for vocal speech, as the sight of a fire calls for an alarm. Mr. Taft's going on the hustings is not only a tribute to Mr. Bryan's powers as a campaigner, but to the work of his National Campaign Committee of editors.

CHAIRMAN MACK AND HIS EDITOR-AIDES.

Mr. Norman E. Mack, the chairman of the National Campaign Committee, is an editor of long experience, who has built up a prosperous newspaper property in Buffalo. He is a captain of industry in journalism, and he is moreover one of the most tactful and patient men in politics. His work of conciliation in this campaign has been of immeasurable value to the candidate and the party. To Mr. Mack more than to any other individual does Mr. Bryan owe the friendship and co-operation of such men as David B. Hill, John B. Stanchfield, Delancy

Nicol, Alton B. Parker, Edward M. Shepard, Herman Ridder, ex-Governor Waller, of Connecticut; ex-Senator Smith, of New Jersey; James Kerr, of Pennsylvania, and John G. Carlisle. He has harmonized the bitter factional disputes in his own State of New York so that the Democrats in the Empire State have not in years been in so good a position for the struggle. Colonel Watterson, the chairman of the Daily Press Committee, is the most distinguished newspaper editor in the country. He is one of Mr. Bryan's powerful converts from the opposition, and he and the candidate are the only two editors in the country whose editorials are most often news in other newspaper offices. Mr. Urey Woodson, the secretary of the National Campaign Committee, is another well-known editor. Governor Charles N. Haskell, of Oklahoma, has also been an editor, but he was made treasurer of the National Campaign Committee at the suggestion of Mr. Bryan because of his ability in devising and working out plans for raising money for the campaign by popular subscriptions and the newspapers. Mr. Herman Ridder, the editor of the great German daily, the *Staats Zeitung,* is chairman of the Press Bureau at Eastern headquarters.

Mr. Robert S. Hudspeth, the vice-chairman of the National Commitee, who is in charge of the Eastern headquarters, is not an editor, but he is one of the shrewdest politicians who has ever fought the enemy in the trust-ridden State of New Jersey. Mr. Hudspeth, in the capacity of chairman of the Democratic State Committee there, cut down the Republican majority from 55,000 four years ago to 8000 last year.

In charge of sub-committees are a number of able editors, and the Democratic editors over the country are collecting the bulk of the campaign funds through their papers. Though there are hundreds of excellent speakers now on the stump, this is at heart a campaign of editors so far as the Democrats are concerned, and it is the first time in the history of any party that such has been the fact.

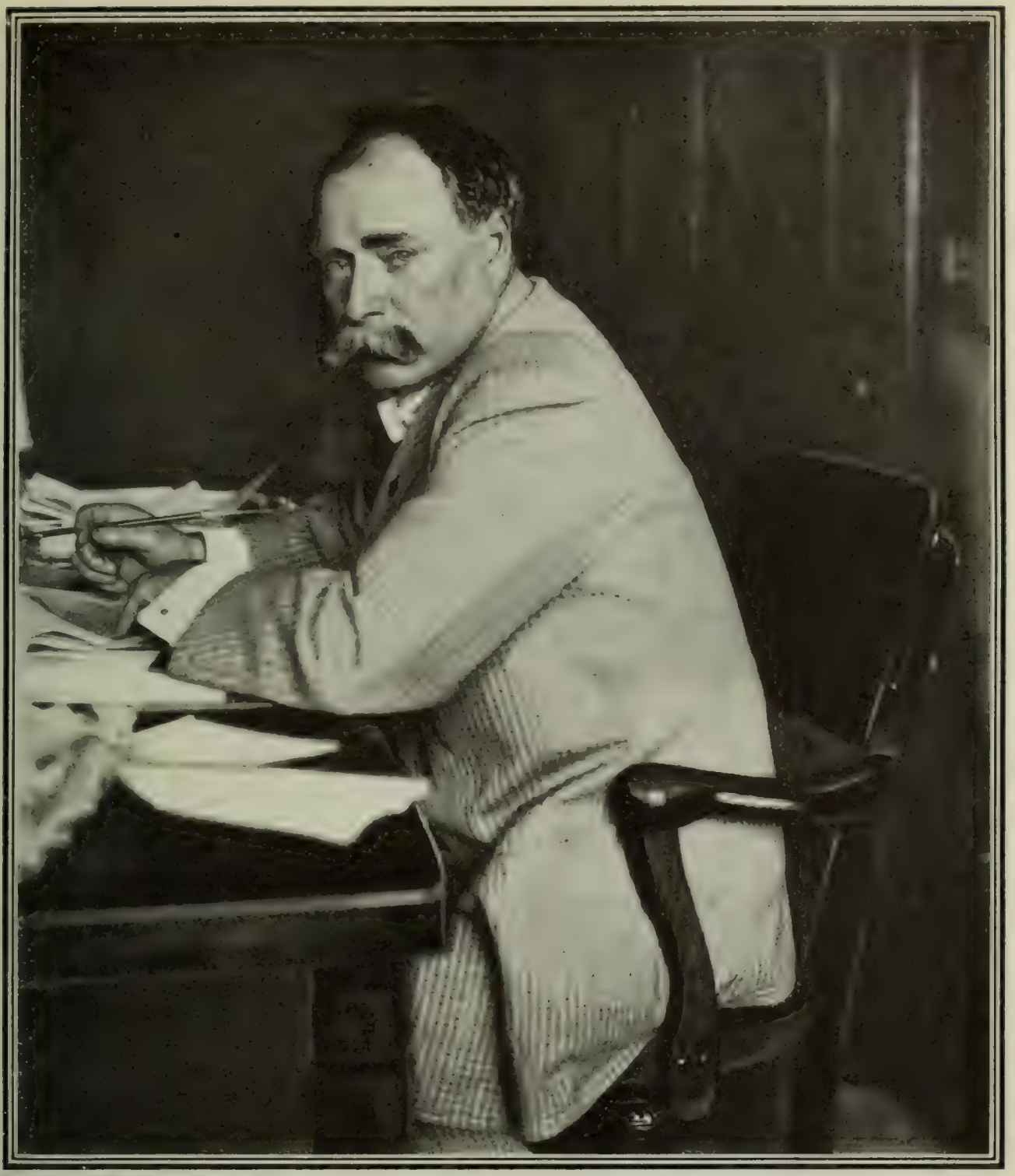
CENTRAL HEADQUARTERS IN CHICAGO.

It is also the first time in the history of the Democratic party that the central headquarters of the campaign committee has been opened in Chicago. This means that the Democratic party's center has at last followed the center of the population of the country to the central Mississippi Valley,—a significant fact. It does not, however, mean that the party has lost the heart and affections of the people in those naturally Democratic States in the East,—New York, Connecticut, New Jersey, Delaware, and Rhode Island. So the campaign committee has been compelled to have both a Chicago and a New York headquarters, and to work in two divisions. While the Chicago office, with Mr. Mack on the ground, has general supervision of the whole country, the work is devoted mainly to all that territory between the Alleghany Mountains and the Pacific Coast. The political conditions in all these States are radically at variance with the conditions on the Atlantic seaboard. In the West the people are dynamic and forward; in the East the people are static. In the East the campaigns this year are much shorter in duration. Every move in New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, and New Jersey has waited upon the State conventions of the two parties. In none of these States were these conventions held till the middle of September. In the one section the Democratic leaders are directing, in the other they are conciliating, educating, and inspiriting. There are, of course, peculiar local conditions in each section, and, in fact, in almost every State and neighborhood, but above all this the party, through its Eastern and Western managers, is waging a consistent, united battle.

ORGANIZATION HIGHLY DEVELOPED.

The committee in its two divisions is organized on the plan of the executive departments of a government. Never did a Democratic National Campaign Committee have so many bureaus, sub-committees, and auxiliary committees and seek to reach the American people at so many points in their lives and daily occupations. There are nearly a dozen of these bureaus and auxiliary committees, including business men, the press, speakers, labor, commercial traveling men, college men, Democratic clubs, precinct clubs, and anti-trust leagues, and perhaps before the campaign ends there will be need for more.

Each of these bureaus and committees, with a chairman, is made up in its membership from active, representative men in the party from the various State and local organizations. The policy of the managers at headquarters is to do more work than ever through State and local organizations. In the surely Republican States practically all the work is being done through the State



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MR. NORMAN E. MACK, OF NEW YORK.
(Chairman of the Democratic National Campaign Committee.)

Democratic committees. In the strongly contested States the work is being done through every channel, national, State, and local, it is possible to employ.

THE FIGHT FOR CONGRESS.

The National and Congressional campaign committees are working independently of each other along general lines,—that is to say, the latter committee is sending out its own literature and working through local committees upon its own responsibility, except in close districts, where the National Committee is assisting with speakers and funds. But never in any election were there so many districts. The Republicans now have a majority of fifty-seven in the House. Thirty-four out of this number are from Northern and Western States, and were elected by a majority of less than 2000. A change of 1000 votes in twenty-seven of these districts may give the Democrats the next



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CHAIRMAN NORMAN E. MACK SURROUNDED BY A GROUP OF ADVISERS IN HIS OFFICE AT EASTERN HEADQUARTERS IN NEW YORK CITY.

House. If there is a Bryan landslide all these districts, and many more, are likely to be swept in with him.

ARRANGEMENTS FOR SPEECH-MAKING.

Mr. John H. Atwood, of Kansas, is chairman of the Speakers' Bureau, and Mr. Homer S. Cummings, of Connecticut, is vice-chairman of the bureau for the Eastern headquarters, and his committee has one or more members from each of the States in this territory. The duty of each of these committeemen is to furnish the best speakers the party has in his State and arrange dates and places for speaking, and also make a like arrangement for speakers furnished by the National Committee and sent into his State. For example, it would devolve upon a State committeeman of the speakers' bureau to arrange in his State the itinerary of Mr. Bryan to make speeches, and in this connection it has been asked what are Mr. Bryan's plans for making speeches in this campaign. By the time this appears he will have made a number of speeches in both the East and the West. Unless something unforseen happens he will rest from speaking for two or three weeks, and then in the closing weeks of the campaign he will deliver speeches in those States where the contest is hottest and the issue believed to be most in doubt.

INTERESTING THE YOUNG VOTER.

Mr. John W. Tomlinson, the chairman of the Committee on Organization, is now engaged in organizing auxiliary committees, or more properly precinct clubs, for every election district in all those States the Democrats are fighting for. There are about 40,000 election districts in these States. These clubs are co-operating with the State and local committees, but their special purpose is to capture the votes of young men. Mr. Roger S. Hoar, of Massachusetts, is chairman of the College Men's Club, and before the campaign closes there will be a college men's Democratic club in every college and in every university in the country from Maine to California.

CIRCULATING DEMOCRATIC NEWSPAPERS.

The distribution of campaign literature by the Press Bureau has been worked out to a science. No material is being wasted or thrown away in this campaign. Mr. Herman Ridder, through his powerful paper, the *Staats-Zeitung*, is reaching hundreds of thousands of German voters. Mr.

Charles Bryan, who has assumed editorial management of the *Commoner* in the place of his brother, is pushing the circulation of that journal through State committees and local Democratic organizations. Other strong Democratic papers throughout the Middle West are making extraordinary efforts to extend their circulation and influence among voters. On the other hand, the guns of the Baltimore *Sun,* which are being fired upon Mr. Bryan in Maryland, have been skilfully turned by the Democratic Press Bureau upon the Republicans in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, and Kansas, where Mr. Roosevelt's policies are strong. The *Sun,* among other reasons, is supporting Mr. Taft because it believes he will not continue these policies. There is no better campaign material for the Democrats in the West than the *Sun's* editorials.

THE CO-OPERATION OF ORGANIZED LABOR.

The Democratic party in the outset of the campaign came into possession of the machinery of one of the best organized bodies of men in the country,—the American Federation of Labor. The Republican press has tried in vain to discredit this coup, but nevertheless it is well known at Democratic headquarters not only that the great masses of organized labor will vote for Mr. Bryan, but that the machinery of the organization is working in harmony with the party campaign managers. Organized labor is worth 50,000 big Democratic clubs to the party, and we believe that the party will poll 90 per cent. of this vote, notwithstanding the desperate efforts of the opposition to create dissension in the ranks. In pivotal States like New York, Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio this vote is a tremendous factor. In 1900 Mr. Bryan received less than 40 per cent. of this vote. There are nearly a million men in the ranks of the Labor Federation.

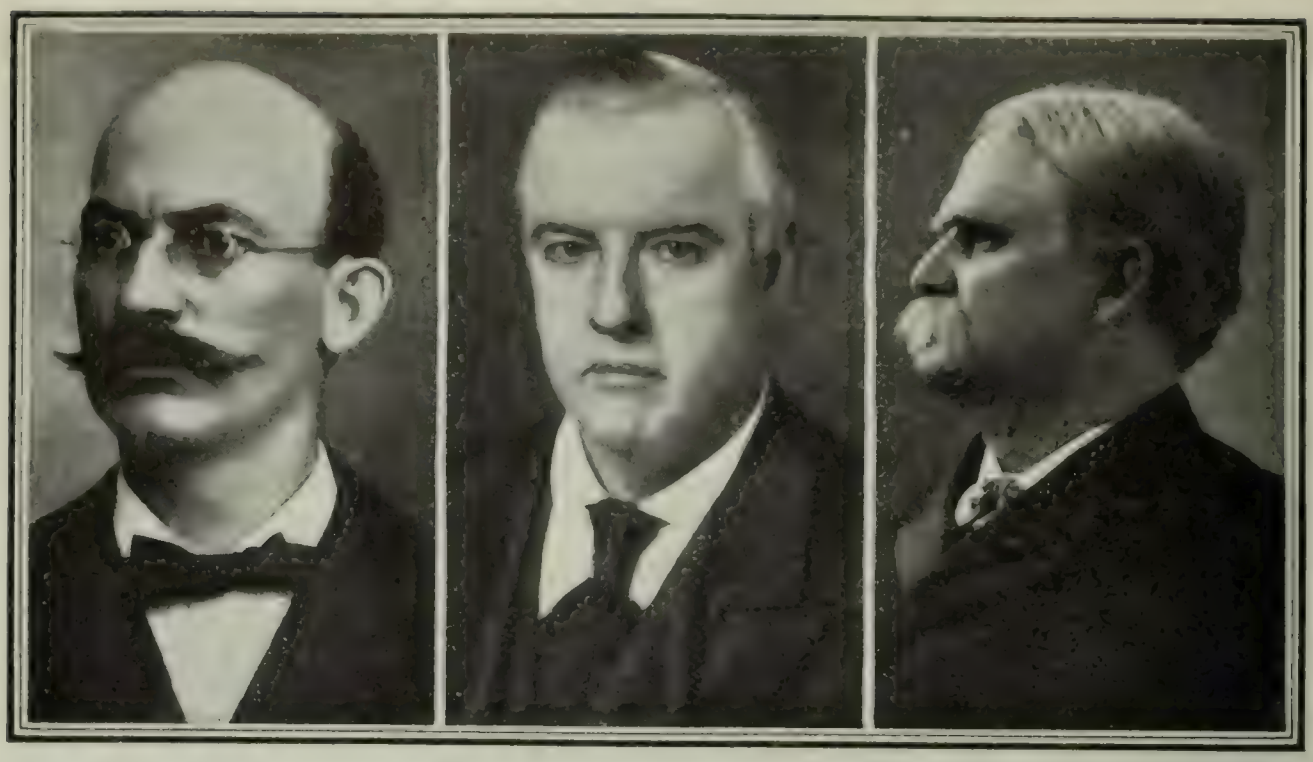
Mr. H. V. Skiffington, known as the flying wedge in the Douglas campaign in Massachusetts, is the chairman of the labor bureau of the Democratic Campaign Committee. In Rhode Island there is no Democratic newspaper, but the labor question there is very acute, and Mr. Skiffington's bureau has succeeded in circulating, through the Federation of Labor in Rhode Island, all the literature that bears on labor in this campaign. Mr. Samuel Gompers' offices at Washington have also distributed a great deal of Democratic doctrine. But Mr. Gompers, through his organ, the *Federationist,* is doing his greatest work for the party. A great deal of the material sent out from the press bureau is published in the *Federationist.* The *Federationist,* the *Commoner,* and the *Staats Zeitung* are going to nearly three million voters.

ATTACKS ON THE REPUBLICAN POSITION.

The Democratic campaign text-book is the best that the party has ever issued. It is comparatively small in volume, and, unlike anything of the usual kind, it is humanly interesting to a reader. It contains the strongest accusation and indictment of the Republican party ever put in so much type, and what is more, the essence of the criticism of the party has fallen from the lips of one of its most extraordinary and singularly able men, Senator La Follette. His denunciation of the Senate oligarchy, led by Aldrich and Hale, and the House Republicans, driven like a herd of asses before the lash of Cannon, Payne, and Sherman, reveal to the reader the true inwardness of the party. With the passing of Mr. Roosevelt from office there is no longer a Roosevelt Republican party left.

It is the old party of Cannon and Aldrich led by Taft and Sherman masquerading in the policies of Roosevelt. But these policies have been emasculated and perverted in the house of their alleged friends, and Mr. Taft cannot make good Mr. Roosevelt's policies if he would. What Mr. Roosevelt could not himself do it is idle to will to another with a less heroic spirit. Mr. Roosevelt dictated the nomination of Mr. Taft in the fashion of an autocrat, but there his power ended, and no one is more certain of that fact than the Republican-built corporations and trusts. This insincere and dubious position of the Republican party is made very clear in the Democratic campaign literature.

The Republican party cannot evade the responsibility for the panic of 1907-8. Its editors, writers, and speakers have for months tormented it with the charge of emptying the dinner pails of the workingmen, and even bankrupting the well to do and rich. But for this panic of its own making it would now be laboring to foist upon the imagination of the people the ghost of the former alleged Bryan panics in the event of his election. Some of the Republican manufacturers, not realizing the meaning of the issues in the present campaign, have had the supreme audacity to placard the closed doors of their idle factories to this effect: if Bryan is elected this factory will not be opened. Under these



A GROUP OF DEMOCRATIC EDITORS ACTIVE IN THIS CAMPAIGN.

Charles P. Bryan, of the *Commoner*. Herman Ridder, of the New York *Staats Zeitung*. Henry Watterson, of the Louisville *Courier-Journal*.

placards, idle and starving workingmen have asked why these factories are not now open. This is a stunning question, and the men who ask it will answer it with angry ballots on election day.

To whom chiefly is due the credit of the moral awakening of the American people? To the man who had the nerve to point to the moral and financial rottenness in the big insurance companies before any one else dared to speak. In this one bold act Mr. Bryan set in motion a wave of conscience that has been



THREE PROMINENT DEMOCRATIC CAMPAIGNERS.

Nathan Straus, Chairman of the Business Men's Bureau. Senator Charles A. Culberson, Chairman of the Advisory Committee. John H. Atwood, Chairman of the Speakers' Bureau.

mighty busy for the last three or four years in housecleaning the country. But this is only one of the acts in the admirable bearing of Mr. Bryan as a citizen and patriot.

DISTRIBUTING MR. BRYAN'S SPEECHES.

It is the main general features like the above on which the literature in the Democratic campaign of this year is founded. All of Mr. Bryan's set speeches have been prepared with a view to the widest dissemination. More than a million copies of his famous speech, "Shall the People Rule?" have been sent out. Before election day more copies of this speech will have been published than of any political speech ever before delivered. It has been translated into all the principal foreign languages spoken in the United States. Another million copies of his speeches on trusts, the tariff, bank deposits, and injunctions will be distributed. It is safe to say that never have the speeches of any Presidential candidate been put before the eyes of so many voters.

But where and on what theory of changing the minds of the voters are these tons of speeches being sent? "Shall the People Rule?" and the speech on the tariff appeal to the interest of every voter in this country. They have been sent broadcast over the country, more of them, however, having gone to doubtful States and congressional districts than to safely Democratic or undoubted Republican States. Mr. Bryan's speech on injunctions has been chiefly circulated in those communities in all the States where there is a large labor element. His speech on bank deposits has been put into the hands of many voters where there were bank failures during the recent panic. For instance, in Brooklyn there has been so much demand for this speech that Mr. Bryan himself recently went there to deliver it. There is also a great demand in Kansas for this speech, rather on account of the need of better banking facilities than on account of the failure of banks in that State. A great many of these speeches are being distributed by mail in pamphlet form, in newspaper supplements, in the "Campaign Text-Book," and also by a great many clubs, organizations, and individuals. Many thousands of persons over the country are listening to extracts from these speeches delivered in Mr. Bryan's best voice in the phonograph.

There has been a remarkable demand for Mr. Bryan's popular lecture, "The Prince of Peace," which in the last five years he has delivered to half a million church people. The desire to read this lecture in the present Presidential campaign is significant, for it does not contain a word of politics, but its



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A CORNER AT THE NEW YORK HEADQUARTERS: ASSISTANT SECRETARY JOHN R. BURTON AT HIS DESK.

lofty moral tone is in keeping with the subject. One might suppose from the vast number and character of the letters Mr. Bryan is receiving on this subject that a religious campaign was also going on in the West at this time.

AN EFFICIENT NEWS SERVICE.

The news service of no Democratic campaign was ever more efficient. No little of the falsehood and misrepresentation in political campaign may be traced to the lack of knowledge and want of tact of men who talk to reporters. Mr. Bryan has himself suffered at the hands of injudicious and unwise representative men who did not fully appreciate the requirements and the relations of the press to politics, but who can imagine a man like Mr. Mack or Colonel Watterson making a foolish statement to a lot of young men eager to seize upon a sensation for their papers? In this respect the campaign is being remarkably well handled. And there is nothing more constructive in originating and sustaining the interest in a campaign, save of course the candidate himself, than its news service. The news service keeps the human interest aflame, like the wind on a fire, and there is no more fruitful news maker than the Democratic candidate. Years ago Mr. Bryan was appalled at the space given in newspapers about his most trivial acts.



GOV. CHARLES N. HASKELL, OF OKLAHOMA.

(Treasurer of the National Democratic Campaign Committee.)

COLLECTING CAMPAIGN FUNDS.

Nothing in national politics in recent years has had a wider and more profound moral effect than the announcement of the Democratic candidate and his managers that the reception of the campaign funds would be promptly published, that small sums would be solicited from the individual voters themselves, that no sum over $10,000 would be accepted from any single individual, and that no contribution whatever would be accepted from a corporation. This announcement, backed by the prompt response of public sentiment, at once restrained the traditional tendency and habit of collecting money at Republican headquarters. It was a fine stroke of politics as well as of morals, for the Republicans cannot do their work without a great deal of money. They will no doubt have all they want before election day, but they dare not publish the sums and the names of the contributors before that day.

The Democrats have always had to make one dollar go as far as ten dollars of Republican money at Republican prices, and, of course, it never could be done until this campaign. The Democrats have at last learned how to get sufficient funds for legitimate campaign expenses by appealing directly to the masses of the people who expect to vote with the party. Ten thousand dollars from ten thousand individuals is worth more than $100,000 from a single corporation. This is a self-evident truth in politics, but it requires work to collect a sufficient campaign fund by this method, and not even the poverty-stricken Democratic party has been willing to undertake the task till now. To Mr. Bryan more than to any other single individual in the country belongs the credit of this driving of corruption out of campaigns and elections. Twice he has been the victim of this corruption, and when he leveled his vision upon the insurance company that paid over $100,000 in two campaigns to defeat him, he began a work that should reward him in his election.

There are about 100 leading Democratic

papers collecting campaign funds, and by the middle of September the Democratic newspapers had raised more than $50,000, the *Commoner* having devoted its profits for the last three months to the campaign expenses. A surprising amount of money has come in in small amounts, such as dollar bills, little checks, and money orders, sent directly to the campaign committee or to Mr. Bryan himself. Nor have a good many generous and well-to-do Democrats neglected to contribute the larger amounts, going to the $10,000 limit. On October 15 every item of these contributions will be published and daily thereafter all receipts will be published. Then will be seen the names of tens of thousands of persons who, in not a few cases with the widow's mite, are financially supporting the Democratic cause because they love the party and the country for which it stands. This multitude expects no return in tariff subsidies and offices, and there will be no more impressive and eloquent page in the annals of party struggle than the roster of their names and the amounts opposite.

THE DAY'S WORK AT HEADQUARTERS.

What is a day at Democratic Headquarters like? At 10.30 Vice-Chairman Hudspeth at Eastern headquarters takes his place at the head of a long table. Around that table are gathered the chairmen of all the bureaus and committees. Each chairman submits his report, a report that deals with all the States from Maine to Florida on the Atlantic seaboard. If it concerns speakers the committee is informed just who is on the stump, the impressions that are being made, and the demand for certain speakers or for more speeches by this man or that. These reports are made up from facts, gathered by wire, by letter, by newspapers, and by visitors from many parts of the country, for out in the States a great army of orators, writers, observers, district and local leaders, cross-roads politicians, and the great silent, thinking masses are at work in that gigantic political game of electing a President of the United States. Much, very much, depends on what this great central committee learns and how it acts on the knowledge.

At the Democratic Campaign Committee table there are seated such men as Nathan Straus, Senator Culberson, Colonel Watterson, Mr. Mack, Alton B. Parker, the chairman of the Democratic Congressional Campaign Committee, sometimes Mr. Bryan himself, and may be a dozen National Democratic committeemen, besides the regular working bureau chiefs. After these reports and deliberations for an hour or so, the chairman or vice-chairman devotes his attention to visitors. In the morning reporters of the afternoon newspapers are received, and in the afternoon reporters for the morning papers. Every task goes to its bureau, and every bureau is grinding for dear life. The Democrats are at work.

IMPROVED ORGANIZATION IN THE MIDDLE WEST.

In 1896 and 1900 Mr. Bryan had no effective party organization back of him in the great States where he must win to be elected. In the Central Western States the Democrats were never so well organized as now, the Cleveland campaign of 1892 not excepted. In Illinois Mr. Adlai Stevenson is the Democratic candidate for Governor. In Ohio Mr. Judson Harmon is the guiding spirit of the party. Mr. Johnson is again the candidate for Governor in Minnesota. The Democrats are everywhere putting forward their men of character and ability. The Republicans, on the other hand, are tormented by factions and feuds in nearly all these great States of the Central West. This year Missouri is as solidly Democratic as South Carolina. In 1904 Roosevelt carried Missouri because 24,000 Democrats remained away from the polls. They will not stay at home this year.

But more important than organization, than Republican apathy, and the issues of the campaign, is the markedly changed attitude of the people toward the Democratic candidate. There are still many persons who do not yet know and understand Mr. Bryan, but if the great number of people who have come to appreciate his character and ideals since he was last a candidate, vote for him, there can be no doubt of his election. As a pointer indicating the inroads he has made on the Republican party in the West, out of one Democratic club in Iowa of 192 members, forty-nine are old-line Republicans, never having voted the Democratic ticket. Democratic clubs in Indiana, West Virginia, Illinois, Minnesota, and Nebraska show a Republican membership of from 10 to 20 per cent.

THE MANAGEMENT OF THE TAFT CAMPAIGN

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

ONE word amply characterizes the dominant spirit of the organization and plan of campaign of the Republican party in this year's Presidential struggle. The word is "system." Never before has the campaign organization of a party been placed on a basis so largely resembling that of a great modern business enterprise. This is in part due to the tendency of the times, to the marvelous genius of American industrialism for thoroughness of organization, for an almost incredible degree of efficiency and economy through organization, due in part, also, to the character, the temperament, of the field marshal of the Republican forces, National Chairman Frank H. Hitchcock. Mr. Hitchcock is a great believer in system. Nay, he is system personified. He is less famous for having managed the anteconvention campaign which led to the nomination of Mr. Taft at Chicago than he is for the card-index system which he employed in that successful effort. In his labors looking to the nomination of Taft Mr. Hitchcock kept track of several thousand men by his system of indexes. In his labors to elect Taft he actually proposes to apply the same method in spirit to millions on millions of voters. Is not this the apotheosis of the modern American business spirit,—this calm proposal to run a fine-tooth comb across a great part of the continent, to create the machinery for putting under a political microscope each one of millions who make up the vast voting mass, to arrange all these analyzed and carded units in classes and groups? And to what end? To what practical purpose? Simply to learn what to do next. This is modern system. System doesn't actually do things. It tells what must be done, and what it would be a waste to try to do. System is a scientific method of eliminating the guess as largely as possible from modern business, and of substituting certainty therefor. Is it practicable to apply it, succesfully, to politics? If so, it will prove a great achievement.

Taft was placed in nomination in the middle of June. No one expected much to be done in the way of organization and actual campaign work by the middle of August. But when the middle of September passed, and October approached, and seeming masterly inactivity marked the progress of events at the two Republican organization offices, one in Chicago and the other in New York, old-time Republicans began complaining. Few if any speeches were being made by prominent members of the party. In many States it was not known if any were to be made. There were rumors of great Bryan gains, and talk of revolution and landslides. What was Hitchcock doing? Was the man asleep? Did he think the election could be won by sitting down in his luxurious offices doing nothing? Why was Bryan permitted to have everything his own way? Letters poured in upon Candidate Taft and President Roosevelt pointing out and emphasizing the alleged incompetency of Chairman Hitchcock. Worse still, it was charged that as a general he was outdoing McClellan in masterly inactivity; that he was insanely jealous of his authority; that he would not permit any one else to decide anything, and that he was so slow in deciding things himself that the wheels were not turning. No one could buy a postage stamp without his approval, and that was hard to get. He was the most inaccessible of great men,—much more so than the President of the United States himself,—and when a prominent Republican did finally manage to break through the cordon of sentries which surrounded him all proffered advice sank like drops of water in the sands of the seashore.

Along toward the end of September, with Bryan touring the country and apparently carrying everything before him,—with Wall Street becoming alarmed and stocks breaking on the fear of a political revolution, with the air filled with rumors of Hitchcock's incompetency, a really serious situation confronted Candidate Taft and his advisers. Judge Taft was not the man to lose his head and fly into a panic at the first alarm. It was not in his judicial character to condemn unheard. He inquired into the charges made against the management of the campaign, and found each and every one of them groundless. Instead of inactivity he found energy and work all along the line. Instead of drifting toward disaster, as the many letter-writers had



CHAIRMAN HITCHCOCK AT WORK.

claimed, the Republican craft was being skillfully piloted toward the port of triumph. The "Bryan scare" which swept over the country, the East particularly, during the latter part of September, was not uninvited by the Republican managers. They were not displeased by it. In fact, it was just what they wanted, just what was needed to rouse the voters, to overcome apathy, to put the party into a militant and conquering mood.

THE FIGHT BEGINS IN OCTOBER.

In the plan of campaign laid out by Chairman Hitchcock immediately after the Chicago convention little of actual demonstration upon the battlefield was to be made till after the first of October. Mr. Hitchcock had taken part in the campaign of 1904 as assistant to Mr. Cortelyou. He knew the amount of money used in that campaign, knew the amount that would be needed this year, knew the great difficulty that would be met in raising it. Like a sensible man, he cut his garment according to his cloth. He planned a short and sharp campaign, a massing of all the outward effort, virtually all the expense, in the last four weeks. These plans for a quiet start but a whirlwind finish gave Mr. Bryan an opportunity which that skillful and experienced campaigner was not slow to take advantage of. He at once began making tours of the country. His speeches were clever and attractive. According to the talk of men, he was running away from Taft. A landslide was coming. Something must be done. The first response was a decision of Mr. Taft to leave golf and Hot Springs and get down to the more plebeian sport of fishing. The next thing was the unexpected determination of the Republican candidate to take the stump. And the third thing was a widespread and somewhat bitter query: "Where is Hitchcock and what is he about?"

STIFFENING THE STATE ORGANIZATIONS.

But Hitchcock had not been idle. He had, to the contrary, been hard at work. But it was work which did not show much in the newspapers, which made no headlines, which roused no comment. Bryan was sweeping over the country, alarming the faithful Republicans in every direction. The discontent of some of them over what seemed to be inaction on their side was only natural. But if they could have known the truth they would have been eager to praise their general instead of blaming him. Chairman Hitchcock early realized that the real battle was to be fought in the Middle West and farther



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MR. CHARLES R. SHELDON, OF NEW YORK.
(Treasurer at the New York Headquarters.)

West. He early realized, too, that it was to be no child's play, that it would be futile to expect such easy victories as Mr. Roosevelt had four years ago. This time it was to be a real battle, not a dress parade. And the very first thing this slave and master of system wanted to know was: "How good is the organization in the States which we must fight for?" And when the answer came: "Very poor, except in the one State of Indiana, where it is excellent," Mr. Hitchcock knew at a glance what he had to do. And he at once set about it.

The national chairman called conferences of all the State chairmen in the Western country. He told them what he wanted. He wanted each State organized as Indiana had been organized, and as Nebraska had been in part organized on the Indiana model. Indiana, it is well known, is the State of the American Union where the art of political organization is carried to its greatest perfection. Both parties follow the same method; they have been driven to it by the desperate character of the warfare waged one upon the other during the past. The Indiana organization is well-nigh perfect in its ramifications. It extends down to the voting precinct. In every election district of the Western States men are to be secured who will not simply accept a title from the party organization, but who will actually work. By work is meant travel about and visit all the voters in the precinct, find out who are all right, who all wrong, who doubtful, and what influences are likely to affect those who are in the third class, what questions disturb them, whether they are usually Democrats or Republicans, and so on. Then, at stated times, all these voters are to be canvassed and listed. In Indiana they take what they call the sixty-day poll. A month later comes the thirty-day poll. Usually a final poll is taken about a week before election. Unless the State is unusually close, each campaign manager knows pretty accurately by his later polls whether he is going to win or lose. If the margin either way is slender, he redoubles his efforts.

FIFTY THOUSAND POLL-TAKERS.

Under Chairman Hitchcock's directions efforts are being made to spread this Indiana system all over the West. It is not easy. It is the largest scheme of organization ever attempted in politics. It involves twenty State chairmen, 1500 county chairmen, 10,000 pre-



MR. FRED. W. UPHAM, OF CHICAGO.
(Treasurer at the Chicago Headquarters.)



Arthur Vorys, Secretary. Augustus Kargel, Publicity Manager.

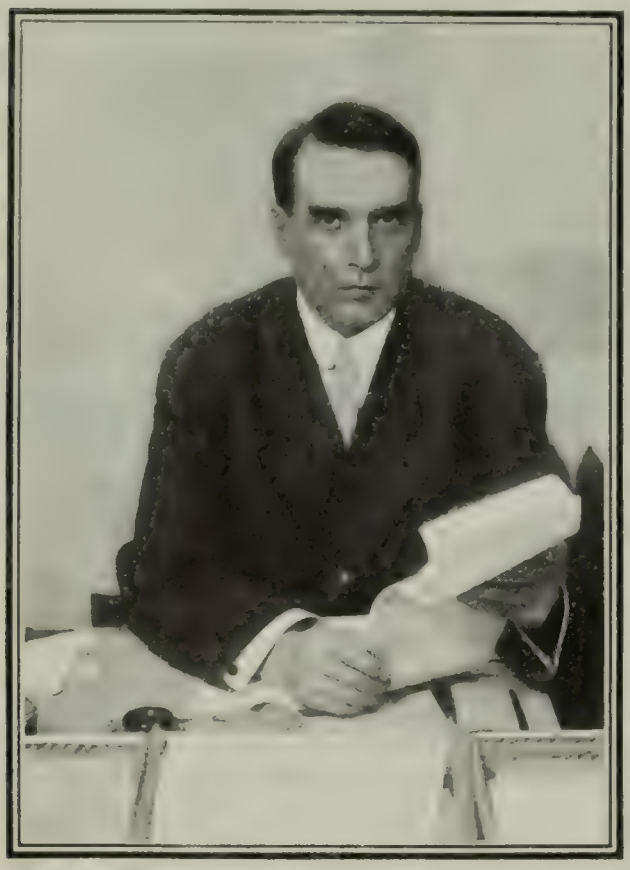
MR. TAFT AT HIS DESK IN THE HOTEL SINTON, CINCINNATI CAMPAIGN HEADQUARTERS.

cinct committeemen, 50,000 poll-takers, 5,000,000 voters. But the work is going forward. It has been going on for weeks,—going on while casual observers thought nothing was being done, that the Republican management was masterly inactive. Note the multiplying, radiating circles of energy. The national chairman rouses the enthusiasm of the State chairmen. They go home and call together all their county chairmen. After a good talk, these in turn go home and summon all the precinct committeemen. It is not always easy to get the results wanted. In thousands of precincts the men who first undertake to take the poll flunk out. Some one else must be secured to replace them. In many precincts this must be done the second, the third, sometimes the fourth, time. But in the end the system wins. And while the critics are writing letters to Roosevelt and Taft telling them that Hitchcock is a failure, the chairman is going over his reports from States, counties, districts. He has everything tabulated. He knows where the weak spots are and why they are weak, and what is best to be done to strengthen them. The great extended card-index is in operation. Bryan makes the speeches and creates the noise. But the system is working silently, insidiously, universally, perhaps successfully.

HOLDING BACK THE ORATORY.

With the single exception of this effort to spread the advantages of close organization, of system, throughout the entire debatable area, there is nothing distinctive about the Republican organization or plan this year. Speakers are sent out by the hundreds, the National Committee in all cases paying their expenses, and to a few of them paying fees. The report was recently spread that no compensation would this year be paid to speakers by the Republican committee. This arose in a desire of Chairman Hitchcock to reduce the number of these professional salaried orators. Persons without practical familiarity with campaign management would be surprised to learn of the large number of men who think they have a right in every campaign to be stipendiaries or virtual pensioners upon the bounty of the party organization. During the month of October virtually every Republican of importance in the country will be on the stump for Taft and Sherman. As already explained, Chairman Hitchcock purposely held the oratorical part of the campaign back till about the end of September. Four years ago most of the important speakers were on the road seven or eight weeks, and the result was that as the

end of the campaign approached, and election day drew nigh, many of them were exhausted and found it necessary to cancel engagements or curtail the energy and effectiveness of their addresses. This did not matter much in a campaign like that of 1904, wherein Roosevelt would have been elected without any campaign committee at all, but it may be of great importance in a closely contested election, such as this one is admitted to be.



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MR. RICHARD V. OULAHAN.

(Head of the Department of Publications.)

Mr. Hitchcock has experienced no difficulty in securing the services of all of the prominent Republican speakers, all reports to the contrary notwithstanding. The rumors of lukewarmness or sullenness set afloat were due entirely to the natural suspicions engendered by the determination of the general in charge to avoid a long drawn out campaign and to concentrate all the energies into the final month.

CAMPAIGN FUND CUT IN TWO.

This year the Republicans will find it necessary to get along with a much smaller campaign fund than for several years past. A well-known Republican leader recently told me that in 1900 the campaign managers had only one-half as much money as Mr. Hanna used in 1896, that in 1904 the sum was again cut in halves, and that this year they will be lucky if they get half as much as they had four years ago. In other words, the Republican managers must this time cut their cloth to a total outlay of much less than $1,000,000, which is a pretty small sum, considering the magnitude of the operation and the wide expanse of debatable territory. It is an open secret that both campaign committees are having their financial troubles. The Democrats are in some respects luckier than the Republicans, for the enthusiasm of their newspapers is bringing them in a steady stream of $2000 or $3000 a day through newspaper subscriptions. Recently, to help out, Mr. Bryan assessed each member of the Democratic National Committee $1000, the committeeman to pay that out of his own pocket or collect it, and in this way the campaign fund was enriched at one swoop to the extent of $52,000. The Republicans have depended largely upon the individual subscriptions of wealthy members of the party.

Corporation gifts are barred by law this year, and individuals are discouragingly slow about coming forward. One explanation of this is the prevalent apathy or indifference, it being notorious that even the most active men of affairs in the East apparently care little which party carries the country this year. Another explanation is found in the reluctance of men to have their names published in the newspapers, since it has been announced by Candidate Taft that all contributions to the Republican fund will be made public after election. One encouraging fact, in the eyes of the average citizen, is the agreement among campaign managers that as the years roll by money becomes a smaller and smaller factor in our national elections. Controlled by necessity, the expenses of the managers are gradually falling to reasonable limits, because it is no longer attempted to send large sums to all the so-called doubtful States, and even to the local committees in hard-fought cities and counties. This year the Democrats say they will make no effort to send funds to close States, a determination which they are likely to recall in the eager closing days, providing they can find the money to send. The Republican managers admit they will follow the usual practice of supplying a reasonable sum to every State committee in a doubtful commonwealth for the purpose of getting the vote out. One of the purposes of Chairman Hitchcock's system organization throughout the North is to

ascertain just where money may be advantageously spent in hiring men and vehicles to make sure of getting voters to the polls. Under modern political conditions it not infrequently happens that a close State is carried by a party on account of the greater perfection of its machinery for getting out the vote.

While the Democrats are appealing, with fair success, for campaign contributions from the masses of their voters, Chairman Hitchcock has found it advisable to organize finance committees in all the Northern States. This is something new in campaign work, and shows how the managers are hard pushed this year for the necessary funds. In each State the Republicans expect to have active canvassing for subscriptions, and the proceeds are to be turned over to the national treasurers at Chicago or New York. It is probable the managers will not find it necessary to publish the names of subscribers to these State funds, letting such contributions go to the public under the names of the State chairmen.



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GEN. T. COLEMAN DU PONT.
(In charge of the Speakers' Bureau.)

A DEFENSIVE CAMPAIGN.

Broadly it is admitted the Republican campaign of this year is one of defense. There



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A GROUP OF MEMBERS OF MR. HITCHCOCK'S STAFF AT NEW YORK HEADQUARTERS.

From left to right: James T. Williams, John Warren Hill, H. C. McLean, Jr., Victor L. Mason, Edward T. Moore, and Oliver Carpenter.

is no expectation of holding the great majorities given Roosevelt four years ago. But those majorities, aggregating about 3,000,000 in the Northern States, constitute a stanch bulwark or fortress against which the assaulting columns of the enemy may throw themselves in vain. No one in authority in the Republican management pretends to deny that the Democrats are making gains in some of the Western States, and to some small extent in a few Eastern States. But it is insisted by the best-informed that these gains, save perhaps in two or three States, do not threaten to make changes of electoral votes. And when the Republicans take an inventory of the strength of their fortress it is with a good deal of satisfaction they note that if they hold New York and Ohio, as they confidently expect to do, Bryan might win virtually everything else considered debatable without getting a majority of the electors.

THE PERSONNEL.

The Republican managers, like their rivals, lay great stress upon what has become known as "literature,"—pamphlets and leaflets circulated by the millions of copies. In neither party is there anything strikingly new in this line this year. The Republicans were fortunate in securing as the head of their department of publications Richard V. Oulahan, the able Washington correspondent of the New York *Sun*, a man of excellent judgment and great energy. In fact, the whole of Chairman Hitchcock's staff is above the average of ability and usefulness. His right-hand man in the task of extending the system in the West is the secretary of the National Committee, Wm. C. Hayward, of Nebraska, almost as well known for his devotion to the card index and the complete organization of which the index is symbolical as the chairman himself. Senator Dixon is in charge of the Speakers' Bureau at Chicago, and General du Pont performs a like service at New York. The treasurers at Chicago and New York, respectively, are Fred. W. Upham and Charles R. Sheldon. The man who keeps the wheels moving in Mr. Hitchcock's absence, or relieves him of a world of detail at all times, is Victor L. Mason, assistant secretary. The chairman's efficient private secretary and confidential man, already noted among public men for his tact, is another journalist, James T. Williams. It is Chairman Hitchcock's pride that his staff is made up of men whose services he found it difficult to secure, not of men who were running about looking for jobs. It is an organization necessarily somewhat hastily formed, but still creditable to the master mind at the head of it and worthy the great scheme of systematization of politics to which it is devoting its energies.



AT LAST THE CAMPAIGN IS STARTED.
From the *Leader* (Cleveland).

CHAIRMAN FRANK HARRIS HITCHCOCK.

BY SNELL SMITH.

THERE was peculiar deliberation this year in determining the choice of chairman of the Republican National Committee. It is needless to dwell upon the responsibilities that rest on the executive head and general manager of the campaign of the Republican party, the exceptional union of characteristics and experience which the post demands, and the conditions which make the present campaign a far more exacting test of skill and tact than the Presidential elections in 1900 and 1904. The conclusion which singled out Frank H. Hitchcock as the man for this burden was a tribute of recognition of which any man might be proud. It is not a strain of conceit to call it an application of the bedrock principle of the civil service to politics, but the award was made assuredly for pre-eminence in tested qualifications.

What President McKinley once said of George B. Cortelyou: "He never loses his head,"—an unforgettable distinction,—may be applied to Mr. Hitchcock with no less certainty. No strain or perplexity or annoyance ruffles his coolness of judgment and temper. He forecasts what might happen as well as he can, but he is prepared to meet what he cannot foresee with a certain command of his resources.

To this balance is joined a rare constructive and operating talent. Organization for working service and its application in practice have been distinctively his life work and his chief pleasure as well. No army maker and leader, no player of chess, can be more willingly absorbed in his task.

The practical outcome is always before him. His constant thought is how to select, how to arrange, how to conduct, to obtain the utmost possible effect without wasteful motion or needless cost. He is incessant in perfecting system and detail, and as methodical as a spider in drawing the lines of his web. His ideal is the perfecting of an organism which moves with the smoothness and precision of a flawless machine.

When he was called upon to take charge of the work of securing and organizing the support of Mr. Taft's candidacy his peculiar gifts were first displayed in a way to meet recognition from the country at large. He was known to many as a highly efficient conductor of an administrative department, but he had not before had the opportunity to make a marked impress in the field of national politics. He went about this work in his characteristically silent and comprehensive way. He was watched and followed as sharply as possible by aides of competitors in the field, but it was almost impossible to keep track of his movements, and he soon had his wires so well laid that he could operate from any point nearly as well as if he were on the spot of action in person.

MASSING THE TAFT VOTE AT CHICAGO.

Everybody knows how the great convention vote for Mr. Taft was finally massed and held in a way that could not be shaken. Before the National Convention there was a rub-a-dub about the contests that would be set up to break the grip on the Southern States' delegations, but, in the hearings before the Committee on Credentials it was demonstrated that the election of Taft delegates had been conducted with such unimpeachable regularity and precision that the contests with the weak claims and patent deficiencies in evidence were farcical by contrast. Had it not been for the extraordinary care in preparation and conduct that was applied by Mr. Hitchcock and his highly competent adjutant, Mr. Ormsby McHarg, there would certainly have been a complaint and heartburning that would have left an open sore in the campaign and prevented the really sincere acquiescence in the result that distinguished Mr. Taft's nomination.

Throughout the strain of the convention Mr. Hitchcock, apparently, was not turning a hair. He was to be seen from time to time in the hotel lobbies, and was always approachable, but beyond a pleasant word or two, with never-failing tact, he was not talking for publication. The range of those whom he knows, by sight at least, covers the country, and he never forgets a face, or a hint that may be of practical service. Out of his office or room he can trust his memory, but he makes a point of filing a card from every one who calls upon him, and his files for ready reference now make a stack to be

wondered at. Few of the people who talked with the man at ease in the lobbies could realize that he was ever alert and watchful, with barely a wink of sleep until the long strain was over.

SOME OF HIS HELPERS.

His distinctive keenness in the choice of helpers is no less marked than his capacity for organization. He had with him at the convention a working force of aides every one of whom could be relied upon to do his share in the joint work. Mr. Ormsby McHarg, to whom particular credit is due, as before noted, is assistant to the Attorney-General, a specially trusted aide of the President, with a career of bright promise before him. James T. Williams, Jr., formerly of the staff of the Boston *Transcript*, and highly appreciated personally by the President and Mr. Taft, is another second of notable efficiency. Another of particular note is Charles G. Phelps, of Connecticut, formerly secretary to Senator Platt, of that State, and now acting as secretary to Senator Anthony.

GETTING OUT THE REPUBLICAN VOTE.

In the conduct of the national campaign Mr. Hitchcock is showing the same untiring application of effort to perfecting the system for working effect. He has now put himself in touch with every fiber in the organization and is thinking only of the campaign work in hand. All the well-approved methods of rousing the voters he has applied as a matter of course, but his devices for reaching the doubtful and apathetic and securing the full vote of the party on election day by direct individual appeals are his chief concern. It is in getting the most effective workers in the party in unison and without overlapping that his strength as a campaigner will be strikingly demonstrated.

MR. HITCHCOCK'S WASHINGTON CAREER.

The making of such a man is well worth tracing. He was only a year old when he left Amherst, Lorain County, Ohio, where he was born October 5, 1867. His father, a Congregational minister, took a charge in Boston, and the young man was educated in the public schools. He played baseball and football and boxed. Under his captaincy the high-school baseball nine won the interscholastic championship. Here he laid the groundwork of his present vigorous constitution, but, when he went to Harvard College, he took a more serious view of life, and roamed about the woods in search of bugs and birds when not in his regular work. He became interested in Republican party affairs while in college, and was sent as a delegate to conventions. When he was graduated, at the age of twenty-three, a relative, who was a prominent official in Washington, secured him a position as superintendent of construction of the present postoffice building. He held it only a short time, however, as Justice Harlan, of the Supreme Court, prevailed upon him to attend his lectures and study law at night. To do so and to gain a more permanent position he took an examination as an assistant in the biological division of the Department of Agriculture and passed it. After that it was always a question of merit in the promotions he received. It was to become more proficient as a lawyer after his contemplated resignation from the department to practice his profession that he secured the position of head of the Bureau of Foreign Markets and made a minute study of the commerce of the United States abroad.

Mr. Cortelyou, with whom he had studied law, kept closely in touch with him, and took Mr. Hitchcock along with him as his chief clerk when he became Secretary of the Department of Commerce and Labor. While there he framed what are known as the "Hitchcock Regulations," to protect the seal herd off the shores of Alaska. Mr. Cortelyou became so attached to him and appreciative of the character of his assistance that he asked him to go with him as his assistant secretary when he became chairman of the Republican National Committee. For the same reason he made him his first assistant when he became Postmaster-General. Though the two have always been intimate friends, the story of Mr. Hitchcock's manipulation of the Southern situation to bring about Mr. Cortelyou's nomination for the Presidency is said by those who should know to be entirely without foundation. He was busily engaged in seeking to bring about the renomination of President Roosevelt, his chief, to whom he had always been loyal. After the President's reiteration of his refusal of another term, he gave his support to the man who had the endorsement of Mr. Roosevelt and would carry out the Roosevelt policies.

POLITICS ON A SCIENTIFIC BASIS.

"Hitchcock is a born organizer," Secretary Wilson once declared. He marshals his forces with exactness, leaving no stone un-



CHAIRMAN FRANK H. HITCHCOCK, OF THE REPUBLICAN NATIONAL COMMITTEE.

turned to bring about the one single result he has in view. It was through the training he gave himself as a scientific observer that he became an assistant biologist in the Department of Agriculture. Since then he has constantly applied the scientific principle that no analysis is complete until every fact is brought to light. He applied this training when he studied the foreign markets of the United States so well that he became an authority looked to by Congress in the mastering of the details of the Department of Commerce and Labor and in the management of the intricate affairs of the Postoffice Depart-

ment. He applied it also when he went as assistant secretary of the Republican National Committee in 1904. He studied conditions everywhere, and became indispensable to Chairman Cortelyou, his chief.

EXPERIENCE IN THE POSTOFFICE DEPARTMENT.

No one can bring about practical reforms until he has become acquainted with every detail connected with the subject; until he has become the absolute master of the situation he seeks to reform. When Frank H. Hitchcock went into the Postoffice Department, shortly after the President's inauguration, as First Assistant Postmaster-General, he studied it as though it were his own business. His predecessors had supervised the work in a general way, and left most of the details to their subordinates. Mr. Hitchcock overlooked none. By constant inquiry and going over every part of the work with the men in charge of it he learned to know the workings of each part of the machinery, and therefore of the complete machine.

The business of the First Assistant Postmaster-General, among other things, is to supervise the appointment of all postmasters and of all clerks and carriers. In looking to the merits of candidates for postoffices he naturally made a minute study of the political conditions surrounding each applicant. Mr. Hitchcock thus had an exceptional opportunity of meeting and becoming well acquainted with not only the members of the House and Senate, but the leading Republican politicians. The result of those three years of experience was to develop a rare knowledge of political conditions in every part of the United States.

SUCCESSFUL LEADERSHIP IN THE TAFT CAMPAIGN FOR DELEGATES.

It was not strange, therefore, that when Secretary Taft looked about for the one man in the entire country who would gather his forces into a compact army and lead them to victory at the Chicago convention he should have selected Frank H. Hitchcock. He did not choose him because he had been so loyal to the President, nor because "the allies" were wishing that they might secure his services. He chose him because he had a knowledge of political conditions and an experience in handling them that were decidedly exceptional.

Becoming the general of the Taft campaign outside Ohio, where Mr. Arthur I. Vorys was in charge, Mr. Hitchcock brought his knowledge of men and conditions into play and lined up State after State for his candidate. His efforts in the West to prevent the Roosevelt sentiment from breaking out and instruction of delegates despite the President's declaration were productive of complete success after a fight the extent of which will never be realized until the history of the campaign is written. In New England also he directed the fight and secured victory from an opposition which had the advantage over a long-established tradition that New England delegates should go uninstructed, and in the South, where he has an intimate knowledge of the conditions, he obtained the support of the greater part of the regular organization for Secretary Taft. The Southern Republican leaders have great admiration for Mr. Hitchcock's fairness. Many of them pledged him their support before they gave it to Mr. Taft.

SECRETIVE, BUT NOT UNDERHANDED.

Every day he worked away at his desk from 9.30 o'clock in the morning until 1 or 2 o'clock the following morning. His headquarters became the Mecca of party leaders the country over. Some had to wait a long time before getting into his inner sanctum, and this has occasioned stories of mystery. Mr. Hitchcock is silent and secretive, but never underhanded. Like a good general, he does not betray his plans, and like a master of the game, as it is played nowadays, he does not let factional leaders of the State in which he is seeking to secure harmony wait for him in the same room at the same time.

"What can he do?" is the question Mr. Hitchcock asks of men who are said to be able to help the cause in which he is interested. It is not a question of selecting men in charge of the campaign in different parts of the United States who are recommended by some friend; they must be known to be able to "make good." He believes in the perfect organization composed of men who work for the common cause.

TOLSTOY AT EIGHTY.

THERE can be no disputing Tolstoy's rank as the best-known, most generally recognized living author. It will be quite accurate to add that he is also the best known of the world's living personalities. There could, therefore, be nothing more appropriate than the world celebration of his attainment of fourscore years.

Who and what is this great Russian, as much a feature of his country's landscape as the Kremlin at Moscow or the troika of the steppes, whom the world has come to regard as a commonplace of its daily thought, and whose name is, it might be said, literally a household word?

There are two Tolstoys,—one, the writer with an artist's vision and a creative touch seldom equaled and perhaps never surpassed; the other, the preacher whose didactic homilies, while without wide influence on the lives of men, have become vehemently debated counsels of perfection to a world "sick of the zigzag of compromise."

The facts that count in the life of the sage of Yasnaya Polyana are neither many nor particularly noteworthy. The novelist and social reformer was born in the same village where his estate now begins,—Yasnaya Polyana,—in 1828,—August 28 Russian style, September 10 in the chronology of the West. A course in private schools and at Kazan University completed his education, supplemented by an extended tour throughout western Europe. He served for three years in the Crimean War, married Sofia Andreyevna Behrs, of Moscow (in 1862), and has been the father of thirteen children, nine of whom are still living. His activities in the public service, which ought to find mention in even the briefest biographical note, include the organization of peasant schools on a new and original educational basis (1875); co-operation in the editing and improvement of cheap popular publications (1885-'95); the organization of relief for the starving population of Middle Russia (1891-'92); his renunciation of any property in copyright, land, or money (1895-'96), and the writing and publication of his many literary works, which include novels, stories, essays, pamphlets, and even plays, many of them aimed directly at definite abuses in public administration. In 1901 he was excommunicated by the Holy Synod (the Russian church), and this hierarchy also forbade its votaries to take any part in the celebrations of his eightieth birthday.

Tolstoy, the literary artist, may be said to have died with the production of "Anna Karénina," in 1875, a work which the great Russian himself calls poor and unworthy, but which will beyond a doubt be read long



Photographs by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

THE LONG WINDING APPROACH TO THE TOLSTOY ESTATE AT YASNAYA POLYANA.

(The estate is located near the manufacturing city of Tula, about seventy miles from Moscow.)



A NEARER VIEW OF THE VILLAGE, SHOWING ENTRANCE TO THE TOLSTOY ESTATE.

after all his preachments are forgotten. It must never be lost sight of, this fact, that Tolstoy himself splits his life in two. His early career, preceding his religious crisis in 1878-'79, during which he wrote all (with the exception of "Resurrection") his great creative works, he now characterizes as unworthy and altogether evil. "I cannot now recall those years without a painful feeling of horror and loathing." He had tried, he tells us, and tested science and modern culture, and had turned from them with a feeling of repulsion because of "the inability of the first to solve the really important problems of life and because of the hollowness and falseness of the second." It is for this reason that he has turned to the simplicity, frankness, and essential kindliness of the peasant as being the nearest class on earth to the ideal Christian. Since 1878 his writings have been almost exclusively polemic and didactic.

The photographs used in illustrating this article give an excellent idea of the personal appearance of the man Tolstoy. The writer remembers him, during a visit to Moscow



THE USUAL VEGETARIAN BREAKFAST IN THE TOLSTOY HOUSEHOLD.

(The picture shows Countess Tolstoy seated next to her husband. The lady in black is the Count's sister, the Countess Maria Nikolajewna, and the figure to the extreme right her daughter, the Countess Sofia Andrejewna. Madam Tolstoy always prepares these breakfasts with her own hands.)



TOLSTOY AND HIS WIFE LOOKING OVER THE MORNING CORRESPONDENCE AND THE NEWSPAPERS.
(It is reported that the aged novelist receives "bushels of mail" daily.)

in 1900, as a big, heavily built man with long arms hanging loosely at his sides, with a wide nose, somewhat thick lips, and small gray eyes, a head set on bulky but slightly stooping shoulders, and a matted gray-white beard, always plus an indescribable air of power. It is the figure and face of an intellectual fanatic, perhaps, but not of a dreamer. It is the face of a man who, while absolutely unshakable in his convictions, sees things as they are, and is under no delusion whatsoever as to his ability to change them.

Tolstoy says he has discovered in the Sermon on the Mount five laws, which have become his rule for faith and conduct, and which set forth the great principles he would

use as a basis for the new world order. These five laws are summarized thus:

Live at peace with all men and do not regard any one as your inferior.

Do not make the beauty of the body an occasion for lust.

Every man should have only one wife and every woman only one husband, and they should not be divorced for any reason.

Do not revenge yourself and do not punish because you think yourself insulted or hurt. Suffer all wrong and do not repay evil with evil; for you are all children of one Father.

Never break the peace in the name of patriotism.

The critics may disagree as to Tolstoy's rank in the literary history of the world; they cannot refuse to accord to his three masterpieces*,—"War and Peace," "Anna Karénina," and "Resurrection,"—a place among the great creative works of fiction of all time. In each of these three, as in nearly all his other novels, there are really two stories: The one based on the life around him, never commonplace, full of varied human interests, dramatic without being theatrical, and generally full of a certain virile poetry; the other centering around the same hero, sometimes under one name, sometimes under another, always the story of a soul, not of external things. This latter, which is made the medium of all his philosophic and didactic theories, is really not fiction, but history,—the history of the development of the man Tolstoy. He always analyzes himself with great frankness and keenness, sometimes with injustice, because he has in such large measure the capacity for self-scourging that is inherent in the Slav peoples. Generally, however, the injustice is only apparent, because the reader is not used to perfectly honest biography.

Have Tolstoy's life, writings, and philosophy exerted any real influence on his time? The critics point to the facts that although he lives and dresses like a peasant and preaches the gospel of poverty and non-resistance, his children have been reared as aris-

* "War and Peace" (a vivid historic picture of the Napoleonic invasion of Russia); "Anna Karénina" (an amazingly frank and keen story of marital infidelity), and "Resurrection" (a story of the rebirth of idealism and Christianity in the heart and life of a typical Russian aristocrat).



TOLSTOY AND HIS SISTER, THE COUNTESS MARIA NIKOLAJEWNA, ON THEIR MORNING WALK BEFORE BREAKFAST.



TOLSTOY AND HIS FAVORITE DAUGHTER, ALEXANDRA LWOWNA.

tocrats, have "married money" and renounced his views, and his tender and devoted wife has always managed "to slip a piece of velvet under her husband's crown just where he wishes it to press most heavily." This is all true. But no man is justified in inflicting martyrdom upon an unwilling wife and children whom he loves. Apparent inconsistencies aside, it will not be disputed that the influence of the aim and life of this man upon the individuals of all classes in Russia has reached from the muzhik's hut up to the very throne of the august Czar. But for Tolstoy's insistent teachings, in all probability the Russian monarch would not have called the first Hague Conference.

Thanks to Tolstoy's courageous and persistent writing, even the petrified ritual of the Russian church has shown signs of softening. It is due largely to Tolstoy's condemnation of great wealth and its abuse that Russia is now treating her prisoners more humanely and her wealthy citizens are devoting themselves more largely to philanthropic activities. Without a church, without a congregation, in the face of ecclesiastical imprecations, in his remote country home where he lives the ideal simple life surrounded by his wife and younger children and a host of loving retainers, Tolstoy has been the great preacher of righteousness to his age. He has been impracticable and out of tune with the spirit of the age, it is true. But just so long as simple moral truths and the honest radical life of a fearless man who squares his conduct by his religion continue to inspire the admiration and emulation of mankind, so long will Leo Tolstoy remain one of the great moral forces of human history.

Following are the most important of Tolstoy's works that have been translated into English: "Childhood, Boyhood, and Youth," "The Cossacks," "Sevastopol Sketches," "Family Happiness," "War and Peace," "Anna Karénina," "My Confession," "Criticism of Dogmatical Christianity," "What I Believe," "My Life," "What Is to Be Done?" "The Death of Ivan Ilyitch," "The Power of Darkness" (a drama), "On Life," "The Kreutzer Sonata," "Fruits of Enlightenment" (a comedy), "The Kingdom of God Is Within You," "What Is Religion?" "What Is Art?" "On Shakespeare," "The Christian Teaching," "Resurrection," "The Slavery of Our Times," "Tales and Legends."



TOLSTOY IS VERY FOND OF TAKING LONG RIDES THROUGH THE SPLENDID FOREST OF YASNAYA POLYANA.



AN APPRENTICES' NIGHT SCHOOL IN THE UNION PACIFIC'S SHOPS AT OMAHA.—THE MECHANICAL DRAWING CLASS.

"WELFARE WORK" ON AMERICAN RAILROADS.

BY WILLIAM MENKEL.

RAILROAD corporations are not the soulless creatures they have sometimes been made out to be. Back of the vast army of railroad men and the tremendous visible property of the companies are cool, keen brains that do the planning and directing, but there are also hearts that recognize that the railroad worker in the ranks is a man, human like themselves, and must be treated accordingly if there is to be that necessary co-operation between company and men that makes for the good of the service. Of course that is the chief desideratum,—the "good of the service," which means the comfort and safety of the traveling public, dividends for the stockholders, more business for the road, —in other words, the general success of the company. Hence there has been taken up by the railroads in recent years what is known in industrial lines as "welfare work."

WHAT IS "WELFARE WORK"?

Welfare work may be defined as consisting of those efforts of the employer in behalf of the employee over and above the mere payment of wages, toward the betterment of the conditions under which the employee lives and works, making him more comfortable and contented, and raising his standard of living generally. This work takes expression in many forms. It makes the surroundings of the worker healthful and pleasant, provides wholesome recreation for his spare hours, affords him opportunity for mental improvement, supplies medical attendance when he is sick or disabled, helps him save his money and invest it wisely, aids him in acquiring a home of his own, secures for him cheap and safe insurance, and robs disability and old age of their terrors by means of relief and pension funds.

THE BUSINESS MOTIVE.

While the railroads have undoubtedly entered into this work with humanitarian spirit, recognizing a duty in taking proper care of the thousands of men that they draw from the cities, the villages, and the farms, who are deprived for extended periods of their home influences, the companies do not pretend that their motive in this work is purely philanthropic. They frankly confess that the considerate treatment of their employees is good business. The generous sums annually spent in this way have proved an investment bringing large returns; the expense is rightly



AN ATTRACTIVE BUILDING ON THE 'FRISCO SYSTEM OCCUPIED BY THE Y. M. C. A.
(Monett, Mo.)

charged to betterment and safety appliances.

With the steady improvement in equipment, the enormous increase of traffic, and the constant demand from the public for a highly efficient service, railroading has become much more exacting in its requirements from those who engage in it. The business more than ever demands a clear head, steady nerves, and strong muscles. When any of these are lacking, there is apt to be a slip-up in the schedule,—a signal is misread, or one or another of the hundred and one rules and precautions neglected,—something unpleasant happens, and,—well, modern railroad equipment is expensive, human lives must be paid for, and the reputation of the road must be safeguarded. Wherefore, the cheerful investment by the companies in the welfare of those who man the trains, the shops, and the stations, or do the other work of the railroads.

THE Y. M. C. A.'S PART IN THE WORK.

To the Young Men's Christian Association belongs the bulk of the credit for pioneering efforts in behalf of railroad employees. Some of the roads run their own welfare institutions, but by far the greater part of this work is conducted by the railroad department of the Y. M. C. A. The first railroad branch of the association was established at Cleveland in 1872. Five years later the International Committee of the Y. M. C. A. took charge of the work and has given it careful supervision ever since.

Nor was there any too much encouragement in the beginning from the side of the companies. The first time a Y. M. C. A. man approached a railroad president with a proposition to start a branch on his road, the president said: "Well, there's a hole on our line the boys call Hell; go there and I'll help you. If you survive there, the rest will be easy, but you'll have to cut out that word 'Christian.'" The "plant" was established, and in three months the keeper of the principal saloon in the neighborhood stated that his revenue had dropped from $3000 to $700 a month. After that the president began to establish Y. M. C. A. institutions at the company's expense, until every divisional point on the entire system had its "plant." The word "Christian" was never cut out.

The railroad Y. M. C. A. soon became an established success, and its buildings now dot the railroad map of the entire country, taking in fully 80 per cent. of the total mileage.



ONE OF THE MOST MODERN OF RAILROAD Y. M. C. A. BUILDINGS.
(St. Augustine, Fla.)

The attitude of the companies has changed from one of doubtful indifference to that of hearty commendation and liberal support. As a rule, the company erects the building or furnishes the major portion of the construction funds, and contributes 40 per cent. of the total operating cost, the other 60 per cent. being paid in by the members. The increased interest of the men is shown by the fact that five years ago these figures were exactly reversed, the members contributing 40 per cent. and the companies 60 per cent.

The management of the institutions is left entirely in the hands of the Association, the company simply keeping a co-operating "eye" on the work. These Y. M. C. A.

houses range in size and equipment from the magnificent building erected last year in St. Louis, at a cost of $250,000, to a couple of passenger coaches switched off on a siding and furnished with some simple living appurtenances. One of the humblest beginnings, by the way, consisted of one room, a volume of Government reports, a secretary, and a canary!

For the most part, however, the associations are housed in handsome, substantial structures, costing from $5000 to $50,000, often of stone, and equiped with all modern conveniences for the comfort and pleasure of the men. For their physical well-being there are baths with hot and cold water; restaurants whose larders are well-supplied with wholesome food; dormitories, with clean, fresh bedding, and well-equipped gymnasiums. For their leisure hours there are libraries and reading-rooms filled with a choice stock of books, periodicals, and newspapers; correspondence-rooms, billiard and poolrooms, and there is no lack of entertainments and informal social gatherings. The men have their baseball, bowling, and hockey teams, instrumental bands, and other like organizations, all of which are popular and successful.



THE SPLENDID STRUCTURE ERECTED LAST YEAR FOR THE RAILROAD Y. M. C. A. AT ST. LOUIS AT A COST OF $250,000. THE GIFT OF MISS HELEN GOULD.

Abundant opportunity is afforded for mental improvement. There are lecture courses on subjects related to railroad work as well as on topics of general interest; classrooms in which instruction is given in railroad rules, airbrake operation, combustion of coal, mathematics, mechanical drawing, mechanical engineering, shorthand, telegraphy, etc. By making the most of these opportunities the men are enabled not only to improve their mental equipment generally, but also to qualify for higher positions. The spiritual side is, of course, not neglected. Religious meetings and Bible classes,—at which attendance is strictly optional,—are regularly held, and not infrequently prominent railway officials make addresses on these occasions.

While the smaller Y. M. C. A. buildings contain only the essential equipment for rest, refreshment, and recreation, the larger establishments boast all the luxurious features of the big city clubhouses, with their libraries of many thousands of volumes, swimming-pools, bowling-alleys, and athletic grounds. Of course all these fine privileges are not to be had exactly without money and without price. The men pay a membership fee ranging from $3 to $5 a year, which includes all the general privileges of the buildings, such as the use of the library, reading-room, and writing-room, while for meals, beds, and baths there is a slight charge, barely covering the cost. The buildings are open day and night, and meals and baths can be had at all hours.

In the United States and Canada there are now 174 of these railroad Y. M. C. A.'s, with a membership of 93,000, and buildings having an aggregate value of $3,569,200. These figures are constantly increasing. In 1907 alone twelve new buildings were erected at a total cost of over half a million dollars, and about 8000 new members were added. On the New York Central Lines there are forty associations; on the Pennsylvania, more than a score; the Grand Trunk has fourteen, and the Boston & Maine, ten. In fact, one or more branches of the Association can be found on as many as sixty-three different railroads throughout the United States and Canada.

This great railroad work of the Young Men's Christian Association is supervised by a corps of competent secretaries, under the



THE "DINING-CAR" OF THE SPRINGFIELD, MASS., RAILROAD Y. M. C. A. THIS IS ONE OF THREE CARS COMPRISING THIS INSTITUTION, ONE BEING USED AS A DORMITORY AND ANOTHER AS A READING-ROOM.

chairmanship of Col. John J. McCook. Five of these men, Messrs. C. J. Hicks, H. O. Williams, John F. Moore, A. G. Knebel, and W. E. Fenno, are located in New York; George D. McDill and W. H. Day are in Chicago; and Edwin L. Hamilton and J. M. Dudley are in Montreal.

These secretaries who are now carrying on the work are practically the same set of men who have been pushing it for many years, and who are largely responsible for the magnificent progress that has been made. They have a genius and expertness in working with men and helping in their uplift, physically, mentally, and spiritually, that is recognized the world over. When the problem of caring for the welfare of the employees on the Panama Canal came up, the President and Secretary Taft immediately turned to the railroad secretaries of the Y. M. C. A. International Committee for advice and assistance, thus giving practical proof of their oft-expressed faith in the men and the work. The strong and enthusiastic endorsement of the railroad work of the Y. M. C. A. by many railroad presidents and public men is summed up in the words of President Roosevelt, who characterized it as exemplifying in practice what he liked to preach,—"the combination of efficiency with decent living and high ideals."

CLUBS AND READING-ROOMS.

Distinct from the Y. M. C. A. establishments, yet resembling them in general purpose and equipment, are the clubhouses and similar institutions erected and operated entirely by the railroads. Notable among these is the chain of clubhouses built by the Southern Pacific along its lines in Nevada, California, Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas. There is nothing of the conventional or severe about these buildings. No expense is spared to make them beautiful as well as comfortable. Usually the style of architecture is determined by the surroundings. There will be a hint of old Spanish architecture in one and of the log cabin in another. The bedrooms, arranged so that they may be darkened in the



A WELL-EQUIPPED GAME-ROOM IN THE Y. M. C. A. FOR RAILROAD MEN AT SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS.



A MEN'S BIBLE CLASS IN THE EVANSVILLE, IND., SHOPS OF THE LOUISVILLE & NASHVILLE RAILROAD.

day for men who have night runs, are spread with immaculate linen. The bathrooms, toilets, and washrooms are models of inviting cleanliness. There are cardrooms, writing and reading tables, billiard, pool, and lounging-rooms, all artistically furnished. Mr. Harriman is the Carnegie of the Southern Pacific clubs, which are supplied with books as well as with magazines and daily papers. The fiction department of the library, which contains practically every current book of importance, is operated on a circulating system that gives to each club the benefit of a larger number of volumes than it contains.

Club stationery is furnished for members, and an effort is made to induce the men to keep in touch with their families and to continue home ties, however much their employment may keep them away from their homes. Opportunities for study are offered, and every inducement is made to the men to take advantage of them.

In competition with the railway clubs, the saloon, which was formerly the only place the men had to go, has proved a failure, the best testimony to this effect being found in the consistent opposition of saloon-keepers wherever clubs are located. There is the same freedom in the railway club that the men formerly found in the saloon,—and a great deal more comfort. No ironclad rules are made. The men meet on an equal footing. There are no membership fees and no deductions from the pay-roll for club maintenance. Trifling sums are charged for beds, baths, and billiard-rooms,—about enough to cover wear and tear. The only requirement for membership in these clubs is the following pledge:

> I hereby certify that I am a *bona fide* employee of the Southern Pacific Company, and I hereby agree to conduct myself as a gentleman while enjoying any of the privileges of the club.

Similar clubs are in operation on the Union Pacific and the Oregon Short Line, some of the houses costing as high as $15,000, the others, though smaller, being furnished on the same scale.



A COZY CLUBHOUSE ON THE SOUTHERN PACIFIC.

The Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé has in operation along its lines in New Mexico, Arizona, and Eastern California a system of "reading-rooms,"—in reality buildings,—ranging in cost from a few thousand dollars to $75,000. The most modern and pretentious of these structures,—at Needles, in the so-called "desert region" of eastern California,—contains a large swimming-pool. Plenty of sleeping-rooms and good libraries are provided, as well as the best bathing and toilet facilities. Billiard and pool tables, pianos, and bowling-alleys furnish ample amusement.

These "reading-rooms" represent a permanent investment of a quarter of a million dollars, not a cent of which was contributed by the employees. The only charges are nominal ones for sleeping and bathing accommodations and for the use of billiard and pool tables and bowling-alleys. The "rooms" are, of course, primarily for the men, but their families are welcome in the parlors and libraries at any time. Cards and games of all kinds are permitted, but no gambling. During the cooler months there are almost weekly entertainments at each "room" by professional entertainers; also lectures on topics of current interest, scientific subjects, history, medical matters, and branches of railroad work. These resorts have proved so popular that scarcely any of them is large enough for present demands.

REST-HOUSES.

The "rest-house" is not exactly a Y. M. C. A., or a clubhouse, or a "reading-room." In some cases it is one of these, or all three combined. But the "rest-house" proper is a modest building situated at points on the road not large or central enough to warrant the establishment of a Y. M. C. A. or a clubhouse, where the men lie over for a rest between shifts. Formerly they had to go into the towns to hunt a meal and lodging,—which often meant recourse to the saloon,—or bunk in some old freight cars in the yards. Now the saloons are passed by, and the dingy "night holes" in broken-down cabooses have been generally abolished. In their places have come the "rest-houses," clean and comfortable cottages, where the men coming in from a long and dusty run can get plenty of hot water for a bath, a good meal, a clean bed, and enjoy a refreshing sleep until called for the next trip.

On the B. & O. there are ten of these



A COMFORTABLE READING-ROOM IN A SOUTHERN PACIFIC CLUBHOUSE.

places in addition to the regular Y. M. C. A.'s. The standard charge to the men is one dime, entitling them to all the privileges the place affords. Needless to remark, the dime does not cover the cost of maintenance, nor does the company expect it to do so.

The Philadelphia & Reading has four "rest-houses," accommodating from 30 to 250 men, one house having a room fitted up as an emergency hospital. The Erie also furnishes comfortable "bunk-houses" close to the yards, where the men can turn in conveniently without having to lose time by going into the towns.



SLEEPING-ROOM IN A "REST-HOUSE" ON THE PENNSYLVANIA, AT PHILADELPHIA.

EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES.

Considering the great numbers of skilled workers required by the railroads of the country, it is not at all surprising that the companies should take an active interest in training men for the service. The recognized policy of the progressive roads is to give to young men, both in their employ and outside, every encouragement to learn the business and to qualify for advancement to higher positions. Apart from the instruction provided in the Y. M. C. A.'s, much important educational work is done by the companies themselves, either in their shops or through regular schools and colleges.

An interesting example is the "Railroad High-School" at Altoona, Pa., where 15,000 employees of the Pennsylvania lines are at work in the shops, offices, and yards. The Pennsylvania Company equipped this school with the most modern appliances, placing it on a par with the foremost technical institutions in the United States, the aim of the company being to co-operate with the public-school system in graduating men competent to earn a living. The four years' course begins with mechanical drawing and ends with machine design. A draughting-room, a carpenter's shop, a forging-room, and departments of wood-working and metal-working, all equipped with the most up-to-date tools, are at the service of the students. Graduates of the school are fitted to go into the Pennsylvania's shops on a footing between the untrained regular apprentices and the special apprentices. Interest on the company's investment will come in the form of well-trained employees, although none of the graduates of the school is obliged to enter the Pennsylvania's service.

A notable feature connected with the Pennsylvania is the Frank Thomson scholarships, established last May by the children of the late President Thomson, of the Pennsylvania system, for the technical education of the sons of living or deceased employees of the lines of the Pennsylvania Railroad. There are eight of these scholarships, worth $600 a year each; they are subject to competitive examination, two being awarded each year.

In order to supply a sufficient number of railway telegraphers the Pennsylvania has established a school at Bedford, Pa. Here the students, besides studying telegraphy, are also instructed in the duties ordinarily performed by station agents. Train orders and other telegrams of the kind handled over railway wires will become familiar to these operators before they attempt actual work on the railroad. A number of other roads, also feeling the lack of competent telegraphers, have estab-



THE HANDSOME SOUTHERN PACIFIC CLUBHOUSE AT TUCSON, ARIZ.



A Y. M. C. A. BASEBALL CLUB ON THE CHESAPEAKE & OHIO.

lished schools or otherwise encourage the study of telegraphy, sometimes by paying the student a small wage while learning, or reimbursing him for his tuition fee after he has been in the company's employ for a certain period.

The student system of the Southern Pacific is an interesting feature of the educational work of that road. This system, conducted in the operating department, consists of a number of working scholarships. These are usually awarded to young men selected from colleges and technical schools. The men are assigned a definite course in reading and are given practical work corresponding to this course. In this way they go through the several departments. The student reports in writing at the end of each period on the work covered. After three years, if he has shown himself competent, he is assigned to a place looking to immediate promotion to an official position.

THE TRAINING OF APPRENTICES.

Owing to the lack of skilled mechanics the education of apprentices is one of the most important problems with which the railroads have to deal. A number of the companies have accordingly established systematic courses of study for their young men, to which the older workmen are, in some cases, also admitted. This work has now passed the experimental stage. In the night school conducted by the Union Pacific in its Omaha shops attendance by apprentices is compulsory. A regular three-year course is mapped out, including arithmetic, elementary mechanics, and mechanical drawing. The Omaha Public Library has established a special branch at the shops, containing books on mechanics and engineering, to which the men have free access. The boys take great interest in their work and advance rapidly. As soon as they finish the course and are properly qualified they are put at more responsible work. This school proved so successful that another has been opened by the company in its shops at Cheyenne.

A similar apprentices' night school is maintained by the Oregon Short Line at Sparks, Nev., under supervision of a professor from the State University. A feature of this school is the time credits allowed to the boys for punctual attendance and proper interest. This credit amounts to thirty days for each year, and is applied on their apprenticeship. For instance, an apprentice having taken four years' tuition and having received a credit of thirty days for each year, can complete a four years' apprenticeship in three years and eight months, receiving his rating as journeyman four months earlier than otherwise. In its transportation department the Oregon Short Line trains young men as brakemen under the care of experienced crews. The students are drilled in the methods of handling trains and are required to study the rules and regulations of the operating department. Their progress is carefully watched, and when proficient they are recommended to the train-masters, by whom they are thoroughly examined before qualifying as regular brakemen. Although the services of these young men are not of much value while they are learning the business, the company pays them sufficient wages to support them during their apprenticeship.

The Grand Trunk road has an apprenticeship system that has now been in successful operation for a number of years, and has been the means of supplying that company with skilled mechanics. Applicants for an apprenticeship must first pass examinations to prove their moral, physical, and mental qualifications for service as a mechanic. They are then indentured to the machinist's trade for



AT THE ALTOONA, PA., "RAILROAD HIGH SCHOOL."—THE FORGE-ROOM.

five years, or to the blacksmith, boilermaker, and other trades for four years. Five cents per day is deducted from the wages of each apprentice, and the total sum is returned to him at the end of his apprenticeship, together with a bonus of $25 if his services have been satisfactory. Examinations are held each year for the apprentices on the entire system. Prizes are awarded to the successful competitors, and keen rivalry is shown in these events. Upon completing their apprenticeship the young men receive certificates officially setting forth the fact that they are competent mechanics. The Grand Trunk also supports six scholarships at McGill University, where there is a course in transportation. These scholarships are open to the sons of employees as well as to the younger men in the employ of the company, and are eagerly sought for, two usually being awarded each year.

A new apprenticeship system was inaugurated on the Atchison's system last year, beginning at the main shops in Topeka. It is to be extended gradually over the entire line. A foreman is appointed for each shop, with the sole duty of instructing apprentices in the use of tools and machinery and how to care for every part of a locomotive. Thus it will not be necessary for the boys to depend for instruction on the regular shop foreman, who is usually busy with his own duties. Classes in arithmetic, mechanics, and mechanical drawing are being established in each shop. On the theory that instruction is more readily absorbed in the morning, when the mind is fresh and clear, the boys attend the classes from 7 to 9 A. M. three days in the week. They are paid for their time during these study hours just the same as when they are doing regular work. The new system covers all branches of the mechanical department,—machinists, blacksmiths, boilermakers, cabinet and car shops, painting, and metal and wood working. The "pay-while-learning" feature also obtains in the New York Central's scheme of education for apprentices.

The expenditures by the companies for the education of their apprentices is fully warranted in their estimation by the more efficient work they will get, the saving of time and material due to higher proficiency, and the assurance that on completion of his course of study the apprentice will be a competent mechanic.

Both the Illinois Central and the Chicago & Alton companies subscribe for scholarships in the railway course conducted at the University of Chicago, which they distribute freely to their young men. This course is designed especially for railroad employees, the classes being held in the evening, in order to allow them to attend.

These are some of the main lines of educa-

tional work carried on by the railroad companies. The examples cited are not confined to the roads mentioned. Similar work is done on other railroad systems. In fact, it may safely be said that there is hardly a company of any importance that does not do something for the education of young men for railroad work. For instance, the Boston & Maine provides free training in airbrake manipulation and other mechanical branches; the Erie Company gives practical encouragement to railroad instruction in various schools along its lines, and also maintains free classes for its mechanical apprentices; the Louisville & Nashville pays young men $15 to $20 a month while learning telegraphy at some of its local stations, and it also runs its wires through some schools adjacent to its lines, where telegraphy is taught, so that the students may have the benefit of hearing the train orders and thus get familiar with railroad telegraphy; and the D., L. & W. cooperates in various ways with the International Correspondence Schools at Scranton, where there are cars equipped for instruction in airbrake handling, steam heat, and other railroad appliances.

PENSIONS FOR EMPLOYEES.

The practice of pensioning old and faithful employees has been in operation on one or two railroads for many years, but only within the last decade has it become more generally established. Eighteen American railroad companies now maintain pension funds, operated on definite plans, with rules and regulations applying equally to all employees. Some other companies, not having as yet formulated a definite scheme, consider each individual case on its merits as it arises. This method is followed by the Boston & Maine, the Chesapeake & Ohio, and the Louisville & Nashville. The basis for computing the pension allowance in these cases, however, is usually the same as that in use by the companies having regular pension systems in force.

Railroad pension funds are usually created in one of two ways: Either the company sets aside an original sum for investment, the earnings of which form a "working fund" for pension purposes, to which is added an annual appropriation when necessary, or the company simply makes an annual maximum appropriation for pension allowances. These appropriations range from $5000 on one of the smaller roads, to $600,000 last year on the Pennsylvania Lines east of Pittsburg and Erie. The companies maintaining pension funds now constitute about 25 per cent. of the total mileage of the country, the number of employees affected by these funds being upward of 500,000.

The earliest plan for pensioning employees on an American railroad was put in operation by the Baltimore & Ohio in 1884. The fund was created by the company. Since its inauguration, and to the end of the fiscal year of 1907, half a million dollars has been paid out, and there is a surplus now on hand of a third of a million. This is a trust fund, on which the company is pledged to pay 4 per cent. interest.

The Pennsylvania's plan, adopted in 1900, has been recognized as a model for many other railroad pension systems. Under this plan the employee's retirement is compulsory at seventy years of age, and may be voluntary for incapacitation between the ages of sixty-five and sixty-nine after thirty years of service. The allowance is 1 per cent. of the monthly pay, multiplied by the number of years of service. The figure taken for the monthly pay is the average for the last ten years. Thus an employee who has worked for the company for thirty years, and whose monthly pay during the last ten years of his service averaged $100, would receive a pension of $30 a month. The Pennsylvania had on its pension rolls at the end of 1907 2756 men, and since the inauguration of the pension fund a total of $3,879,438 has been paid out.

On the Philadelphia & Reading, in addition to the provisions of the Pennsylvania's plan cited above, allowances are made to faithful employees, regardless of age limit, who have become incapacitated through injury received in the performance of duty.

The figures for the retiring age and percentage of pay allowed as pension in the Pennsylvania plan have been adopted by the Oregon Short Line, Oregon Railroad & Navigation Company, the Southern Pacific, the Union Pacific, the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western, and the Sunset Lines in Louisiana and Texas. In all of these companies, however, the period of service required for eligibility to a pension is twenty years, as against thirty on the Pennsylvania, while the Illinois Central's plan calls for only ten years' continuous service immediately preceding retirement.

The plan of the Atchison company, inaugurated at the beginning of last year, differs in some respects from those mentioned. The



A BRASS BAND COMPOSED OF MEMBERS OF THE Y. M. C. A. ON THE BOSTON & MAINE RAILROAD.

term of service required is fifteen years next preceding date of retirement. The basis for computing the allowance is, for each year of service, 1¼ per cent. of the first $50 of the highest average monthly pay received during any consecutive ten years, and, in addition, ¾ of 1 per cent. of any excess of such highest average monthly pay over $50. This percentage rate proves less liberal than the 1 per cent. of other pension plans when the average monthly pay exceeds $100, and more liberal when the pay is less than this sum. No allowance is to be less than $20 or more than $75 per month. In exceptional cases of long service with first-class record the pension may be increased 25 per cent.

The basing of the Atchison's allowance on the highest average monthly pay during *any* consecutive ten years of service, instead of on the last ten years, as in most other pension schemes, is more advantageous to the employee in instances where he has been obliged, owing to his advancing years previous to retirement, to take a less remunerative position. Under the Atchison plan it is possible for an employee to retire with a pension allowance exceeding the amount of his pay at the time of retirement.

The Grand Trunk also figures its pension allowances on this basis. The rate in force on this road is the usual 1 per cent. of the monthly pay for each year of service, no pension granted being at a lower rate than $200 per year. The Grand Trunk also pensions an employee injured in the performance of his duty, if he has ten years of service to his credit, the allowance continuing as long as he is incapacitated.

RELIEF FUNDS.

In an occupation as hazardous as railroading it is imperative that there be some provision for the employee who is disabled in the course of his day's work. Before the organization of relief associations there were the subscription lists and personal appeals among the men in behalf of needy cases. These often made greater inroads on the employees' wages than the stated regular assessments of the relief associations do now. The companies have generally taken over the supervision of this relief work and put it on a systematized and more satisfactory basis.

As far back as 1844 the Baltimore & Ohio brought into existence its "Invalid Fund," succeeded in 1880 by the B. & O. Employees' Relief Association. For this purpose the company contributed a starting fund of $100,000. Membership in this association is compulsory on the part of employees engaged in the direct operation of the road. The company makes all collections and payments, holds the money as trust funds, and pledges itself to pay 4 per cent. interest. Benefits are paid for illness and disablement, and for natural as well as accidental death.

The Philadelphia & Reading contributed to its relief association a sum equal to 10 per cent. of the amount paid in by the employees, until the fund reached $1,000,000, which occurred in 1893; since then it has contributed a sum equal to 5 per cent. of the payments by employees. As in the case of the B. & O., the association is managed by an advisory committee representing both company and men. The company pays the expenses of clerk hire, office room, stationery,



EXTERIOR VIEW OF A SOUTHERN PACIFIC EMERGENCY HOSPITAL.

etc., which items in recent years have totaled up to about $15,000. The members of the association pay from 75 cents to $3.75 per month. The death benefits range from $350 to $1350. Accident benefits run from 50 cents to $2 per day, and sick benefits from 40 cents to $2 per day, the maximum term for receiving these benefits being one year. More than $4,000,000 has been paid out by this association since its organization, and it now has a half-million-dollar surplus on hand.

Similar in cost and benefits, with some slight variations, is the Pennsylvania Voluntary Relief Department. The Boston & Maine contributed substantially to the reserve fund of its Employees' Relief Association, which has been in existence for twenty-six years. This company also allows half pay to employees who are injured during their work, and furnishes free medical attendance.

HOSPITAL AND MEDICAL SERVICE.

The railroad business, with its enormous yearly number of casualties, requires ample provision for the efficient care of the injured. For this purpose there are large general hospitals, emergency hospitals, dispensaries, hospital cars, and first-aid relief measures. Hospital associations are connected with all the large railroads. They are maintained as a rule by the men, with the co-operation of the companies. For a small monthly fee, usually 50 cents, the members receive medicine, hospital service, and physician's attendance. Associations of this kind are found on the Chesapeake & Ohio, the Illinois Central, the Atchison, the Union Pacific, Southern Pacific, Oregon Short Line, Oregon Railroad & Navigation Company, the Sunset Lines, and other roads.

The Wabash Employees' Hospital Association owns and operates three large hospitals of approved modern construction and equipment. It also maintains sixteen dispensaries in charge of salaried surgeons, subject to call at all hours, and appoints local surgeons for its service at various points on the line. The Wabash Railroad contributes the use of its telegraph and train service and the time of its officers who are connected with the hospital work.

In the case of the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Hospital Association the company in nearly every instance paid the first cost of the ten well-appointed hospitals connected with the association.

The Erie, in addition to subsidizing hospitals at various points, has two fully equipped hospital cars. The more complete of these is located at Jersey City. This car is fitted with all modern hospital appliances and beds and is kept ready for service night and day. It stands on a track so that it can be easily got at and rushed to the scene of an accident, thus affording prompt and efficient aid.



OPERATING-ROOM IN AN EMERGENCY HOSPITAL OF THE SOUTHERN PACIFIC.
(Oakland Yards, California.)

The Southern Pacific also makes use of a car in its medical work. This car is not only a vehicle of transportation but a complete and compact hospital on wheels. The equipment of the car is such that the most delicate operation can be performed in it at the very scene of an accident with as much care as at a regularly equipped hospital. The Southern Pacific's emergency hospitals, located at all important divisional



THE WABASH RAILROAD EMPLOYEES' HOSPITAL, AT MOBERLY, MO.

points, are notable features of its medical work. These buildings cost on an average $6000 and are modern in every detail, containing a doctor's office, waiting-room, supply-room, operating-room, and wardroom for patients who are too ill to be moved at once to their homes or to a general hospital. The great value of the emergency hospital can only be appreciated when one considers the vast unpopulated regions through which the Southern Pacific runs and the danger of transporting severely injured or dangerously sick persons over long distances.

This company also contracts with hospitals in the principal cities on its lines for the treatment of its employees, besides having physicians and surgeons at nearly every station for this purpose.

Adequate hospital and medical arrangements similar to those mentioned are also maintained by the Union Pacific, the Oregon Short Line, the Sunset Lines, Oregon Railroad & Navigation Company, and other roads.

SAVINGS AND INVESTMENT FEATURES.

Assisting the employee to save and invest his earnings is a branch of welfare work not yet generally adopted by the railroad companies. That it is practical and beneficial is proved by the success of the Baltimore & Ohio Savings and Loan Fund, in operation since 1882. The money on deposit by employees is strictly a trust fund protected by the decisions of the courts. This leads to absolute confidence in the "bank" on the part of the depositors. However troublous financial conditions in general may be, the depositors have no anxiety for the safety of their savings. The company guarantees 4 per cent. interest, in addition to which it is usually able to pay a dividend of from 1 to 1½ per cent. a year from earnings on real-estate loans to employees. The aggregate of deposits on June 30 of last year was $4,000,000, and interest and dividend payments from the beginning of the fund to this date amounted to $1,500,000.

The Pennsylvania also conducts a savings fund for its employees, guaranteeing 3½ per cent. interest. Over a thousand agents of the company along the Pennsylvania Lines East of Pittsburg and Erie are designated as depositories. With any of these agents an employee may deposit sums not exceeding $100 a month. From 1888 to 1907 more than $11,000,000 was on deposit by employees, and about $1,225,000 was paid out in interest.

The Illinois Central has no savings fund, but it has an arrangement by which employees may purchase shares of the company's stock on the installment plan. Five dollars is the required minimum payment per year. Interest at the rate of 4 per cent. is allowed on the installments until the stock is paid for, after which, of course, the holder is entitled to the regular declared dividends. Em-



ONE OF THE HUNDRED OR MORE COTTAGES OF DIFFERENT DESIGNS BUILT BY THE PENNSYLVANIA AT ENOLA, PA., TO SELL TO EMPLOYEES ON THE "EASY-PAYMENT" PLAN.

ployees are not allowed to purchase more than one share of stock by the installment method at one time.

The Great Northern also assists employees to invest in its stock. A certain number of shares was originally issued by the company, to be handled by a specially created Employees' Investment Association. Certificates in multiples of $10 on which the company pays 6 per cent. are issued against these shares for the benefit of such employees as may wish to purchase them. About a million dollars' worth of these certificates are now outstanding with employees, and the amount is constantly increasing.

HOME BUILDING.

The B. & O. has been a pioneer in a number of "welfare" schemes, and its loan feature, the sole object of which is to enable employees to become home-owners, has been in operation for more than a quarter of a century. During all that time it has not sustained a single loss to speak of. The popularity of this loan fund may be understood from the figures of its operations. Two thousand houses have been built with assistance from the fund; 3000 homesteads have been purchased; 600 properties have been improved, and liens on other properties to the number of 1600 have been released. Interest burdens are lightened by a system of convenient monthly repayments and the computation of interest accordingly. The company also guarantees the payment of contractors' and supply-firms' bills, which materially reduces the cost to the employee of all construction work. The total loan transactions to June 30, 1907, involved the sum of $6,750,000. A third of this amount was outstanding in loans to employees on the date mentioned, and the treasury contained cash to the amount of $1,750,000, on which the company's guarantee of 4 per cent. interest held good.

The Pennsylvania performed an interesting home-building exploit last year. To make homes for the men employed in its Enola freight yards this company actually built a whole town to order. Over a hundred houses, designed by competent architects, are now complete or under construction. There are wide, paved streets, trees, a school, a picturesque inn, electric lights, water-works, and other public utilities. Saloons, blacksmith's shops, and noisy factories are barred. The most expensive residence suburb is not more carefully restricted. The houses are sold by the company on the "easy-payment" plan, and the purchaser pays no profit on the investment or interest aside from his share of the interest charge assumed by the company in financing the undertaking.

Some years ago the Erie Company, learning that the men were having difficulty in finding houses to live in at Hornell, a large division point on its line, gave substantial financial encouragement to an outside concern to put up a number of dwellings of a suitable design for the men for whom they were intended. The idea was to place their employees in proper sanitary surroundings in order to safeguard the health of the men and their families. The Louisville & Nashville Railroad provides its track foremen and the laborers under them with comfortable houses rent free.

OTHER INSTANCES OF "WELFARE WORK."

Worthy of mention in connection with matters affecting the relations of company and men is the adoption by the Erie of the "Brown system" of discipline. Under this system an employee guilty of a breach of discipline is not promptly taken out of the service, as formerly, but is allowed to remain, his dereliction being recorded against him, and the penalty of dismissal being inflicted only in case his record becomes sufficiently bad.

Both the Erie and the Atchison roads publish employees' magazines. These periodicals contain illustrated articles of general interest, besides railroad news, and serve as an excellent means of communication between the officials and the men.

Circulating libraries are successfully maintained on a number of roads, that on the B.

& O. containing many thousands of volumes. The general passenger department of the Sunset Lines operates a library consisting of books and periodicals that it sends from point to point on the road, the reading matter going chiefly to the section men. This company has for several years made it a practice to send to the children at the different sections along its lines a supply of Christmas books. The brightly colored pages and amusing stories of these publications furnish entertainment for scores of little ones who might not otherwise get any particular recognition during the holiday season.

THE EFFECT OF "WELFARE" EFFORTS.

The foregoing are some typical examples of "welfare work" carried on by some of the railroads of the United States and Canada. If space permitted, many others might be mentioned in detail, such as the vacation resorts of the Pennsylvania and the special cottages maintained by that company in Colorado for consumptive employees; the literary and scientific institutes popular on the Grand Trunk, with their lecture courses, brass bands, horticultural and other societies; the athletic clubs on the Philadelphia & Reading, and other activities of a kindred nature engaged in by employees and encouraged by the companies.

"Welfare work" is not yet carried on by every company. Some of the larger roads have gone into the matter extensively and do a great deal in various lines, while others have only recently begun some features in an experimental way. The work, however, is developing. Each year more money is devoted to it, other companies are taking it up, and we may hope in time to see most of those branches of welfare work that have proved successful where tried, taken up and permanently carried on by the majority of the railroad companies of the country.

That the efforts and expense on the part of the railroads in these various ways in behalf of their employees have been abundantly justified from both the business and humanitarian standpoints, the high officials of the roads are firmly convinced. "Welfare work" has brought company and men into closer relationship. It has made employees feel that the company takes a sympathetic interest in their welfare; that it is not merely seeking to grind out the best years of their lives with exacting work, long hours, and small pay, giving them nothing to look forward to but retirement without compensation through disability or old age. It has tended to stamp out that spirit of discontent that has caused so many costly strikes in American railroad history. It has generally raised the tone and character of the men, increasing their loyalty and efficiency, and making them realize that the success of the company means their own success, and that these both depend on each man doing well his individual part.



THE SANTA FÉ'S PALATIAL RECREATION HALL FOR EMPLOYEES AT NEEDLES, IN THE "DESERT REGION" OF CALIFORNIA.

A YEAR OF BUSINESS RECOVERY.

BY CHARLES F. SPEARE.

NEARLY a year has passed since the destructive panic of 1907. The second half of this year, or the period beginning in March, has witnessed a constructive process in motion in nearly every branch of trade. In this respect the East has not been so fortunate as the West and the proportion of improvement in New England, in New York, and in Pennsylvania has been considerably smaller than in the Northwest, the Middle West, and on the Pacific Slope. The East has been to lower depths of depression than the West, and her products are not of the sort to command the immediate, cash-realizing markets, on which the farmer of Minnesota, or Kansas and Nebraska, can depend. The panic began in the East. The effects of it will remain there longest. It is unquestionably true that the brief duration of extreme trade dullness was possible, owing to the immense reserve wealth of the agricultural sections of the country and the large accretions of riches as soon as this year's bountiful crops passed from the elevators into the primary markets.

The tide of business ebbed away rapidly from the end of October last year until February or March of 1908. Certain localities and certain industries felt the turn of the current long before others had shown the smallest sign of recovery from almost complete prostration. As late as May there were indications of great sluggishness in business. Idle freight equipment was greatest at the end of April. Then 413,000 cars, representing a train 10,300 miles long, were out of commission. It is perhaps most apt to date the universal recovery in confidence and the beginning of business expansion with the actual inauguration of harvesting operations in the winter-wheat States and the evidence then produced that the yield would be much above the average and that there would be very little falling off in the purchasing power of the great consuming sections of the trans-Mississippi region. Certain it is that since June there has been a progressive improvement in trade.

A year after the panic business in the East is about 60 per cent. of the volume of the first part of last autumn. It has risen between 15 and 20 per cent. from the lowest point of depression. It is approximately 80 per cent. of the volume of October, 1906, fully as large as that of the same month in 1905, and greater than in 1904.

If it had been possible for a merchant of New York, Boston, or Philadelphia to have played a Rip Van Winkle part from 1905 up to the present time he would waken now in astonishment over the industrial activity in many of the leading manufacturing sections. The slump in business is mostly relative to 1907 conditions. Eliminate that year of tremendous boom, of froth, of greatest output, and of smallest profits American producers have ever known, and the situation, as it stands to-day, is not at all unsatisfactory.

GENERAL INDUSTRIAL RESUMPTION.

It is not from Wall Street that one takes one's reading of the barometer of current business. The value of American securities depreciated something like $5,000,000,000 in the nine months preceding the panic and in the week in which the Knickerbocker Trust Company and a dozen other banking institutions in New York City closed their doors. Half of this loss, perhaps as much even as $3,000,000,000, has been recovered. Merchants whose goods have been going slowly, the unemployed, as well as economists, have watched the steady rise in stocks and bonds, and wondered what there was in the general commercial situation to warrant it. Cheap money with which to buy securities giving a liberal yield to the investor and supreme faith and optimism concerning all things American concentrated in a group of powerful capitalists have been largely responsible, but they could not have operated in the way they have had not confidence displaced nervousness and foreboding, mills returned to something like their old schedules, money come out of hidden places, the number of idle cars, the number of rusting looms, the unemployed, the doers of the day's work, steadily decreased. Nearly 200,000 of those cars sidetracked in April are now hauling freight. Six months ago practically all the railroad shops scattered throughout the United States were closed or running on short time. To-day all are open;

many are operating half of their forces full time and the other portion on fair hours. Construction work involving several thousand miles of new lines that passed from a reality into a dream of better times has again been renewed, though on a smaller scale. Furnaces that burned out in February have been blown in in the Alleghany region and in Alabama. There are probably 20 per cent. more spindles in operation in the mill towns of New England, where there was a vast army of workers on an enforced vacation. The situation is not one to be greatly enthusiastic over. There is a long, hard pull ahead of many of us. It is a time for economy just as much as it was last November or in February. But that the tide has turned permanently and that each month will see some gain over the month before until business rests again on a normal basis, not the 1907 basis, is unquestioned.

STEEL AS A TRADE BAROMETER.

One of the most accurate indices of trade is the business of the United States Steel Corporation. Two months after the panic this great industrial organization with an army of a quarter million employees and a pay roll of $150,000,000 per annum was operating at 40 per cent. of its capacity. Early in September it was running its plants at 60 per cent. of maximum, and in that month, for the first time since December, 1906, it showed an increase in the number of unfilled orders. In one department, that of wire, it had record orders on its books at a season of the year when demand for this particular product is at about the lowest. This, of course, reflects the enormous and unrestrained purchasing power of the farming sections of the West. In fact, it is primarily because the trans-Mississippi country has been making money and spending it liberally for improvements and to enlarge its facilities that business with the Steel Corporation has been so good. In January pig iron production was 1,045,520 tons. In August it was 1,348,000 tons, a gain of nearly 30 per cent. Between January and August, 1907, production increased only from 2,205,000 tons to 2,250,000 tons, and in the same period of 1906 it fell from 2,068,000 to 1,926,000 tons. An important development is that now consumption of iron and steel is exceeding the current production of the raw iron and the finished steel.

Building operations, which were nearly all suspended in the large Eastern cities before the panic because of the excessive cost of material and the inability to secure competent labor, and remained quiescent after the panic on account of tight money and the unwillingness of capitalists to put their funds into enterprises of this sort, enlarged in July 5 to 10 per cent. over 1907, as the building permits show, though there was again a setback in August, due mainly to curtailment in New York City operations.

DEMAND FOR BRASS AND ELECTRICAL EQUIPMENT.

For months there was practically no copper metal mined in Montana, and only a small proportion of the normal yield was produced on the Michigan Peninsula and in Arizona. The great electrical and brass manufacturers of the East were out of the market as buyers, as they had supplies of metal much in excess of their manufacturing needs. Little by little these stocks have been worked off and the demand on producers is increasing wholly independent of the foreign requirements, which have, in truth, been the mainstay of the copper industry for about nine months. Since June makers of electrical machinery and appliances have increased their output from 10 to 25 per cent. Power plants and electrical railways, the sort of projects which were hardest hit by the panic, have been finding more favor and disbursing more money. In the Naugatuck Valley of Connecticut, where the great brass industry is located, there has been a 20 per cent. expansion in business in the last three months. One large concern there has a pay roll of $20,000 a week in excess of July and 10 per cent. greater than in the same period of 1907. The General Electric and the Westinghouse Electric companies, from a 40 per cent. basis of production, have advanced to a 55 per cent. basis. The Standard Oil Company felt the panic very little, probably not more than 10 per cent., but it has recovered this and is now above normal. Many large industrial corporations, so their officers say, are doing a business represented by 65 to 75 per cent. of 1907 consumption of raw product and of output of finished material. Inasmuch as prices have changed but slightly, while costs of manufacturing have fallen, the actual results are not to be scorned at by managers or shareholders.

THE BANKING SITUATION.

A sequel to the panic was the suspension, within a radius of 200 miles of New York,

of a score of banks and trust companies with deposits of more than $200,000,000 and depositors numbering from 75,000 to 100,000. Included in this number were large and small merchants, little tradesmen, corporations, and persons living on their incomes. In New York City alone all but three of the fifteen failed institutions have resumed operations and released a large share of deposits. Two of those to be liquidated have declared dividends of 100 and 90 per cent. This return to depositors of their money has been one of the most signal instances of the sound foundation of the country and the needless severity of the crisis of last October. Never in a panic period have there been so few bank failures, while in the history of no country have creditors been so readily granted a large part of their claims. With such promptness of payment a great many persons will question the need of a guaranteed bank-deposit law.

If we eliminate those cities where the influence of speculative markets on bank clearings is pronounced, we find that, since January, there has been a very good percentage of increase in bank exchanges representing purely mercantile transactions. There are sections where the clearings in September even ran ahead of September of 1907 with its enormous volume of business. This undoubtedly represents local conditions and circumstances peculiar to certain branches of industry which had begun to experience a reaction months before the panic entirely flattened them out. The East, however, cannot duplicate the record of cities like Kansas City with clearings 5 to 8 per cent. above those of a year ago and St. Paul, St. Louis, Minneapolis, Denver, and some of the smaller cities of the Middle West, which are making weekly exchanges from a few hundred thousand to several million dollars more than twelve months ago. New York City exchanges in the first week of September were 39 per cent. greater than in 1907, but the transactions in stocks were about 40 per cent. in excess of the previous year, while $27,235,000 par value of bonds were dealt in in contrast with $3,756,000 the year before. Boston clearings increased 16.9 per cent., those of Philadelphia 6.3 per cent. and of Chicago 5.8 per cent.

The following table will show the change that has come over the business situation, as interpreted by bank clearings, from February to September: in percentages of decrease and increase from a year ago:

DIVISIONS OF STATES.

	Middle.	New England.	Middle West.	Pacific.	South West.	South ern.
February...	−28.7	−22.8	− 9.8	−27.4	+4.5	−11.6
March.....	−31.6	−19.7	− 8.6	−28.9	+0.9	− 9.6
April.....	−40.7	−28.9	− 6.3	−27.2	+3.5	− 9.5
May.....	−27.8	−20.1	− 6.8	−24.5	+0.5	−10.5
June.....	−11.1	−13.2	−14.7	−26.8	−7.3	−19
July.....	−12.6	−12.5	− 8.9	−17.9	−8.7	−10.6
August.....	−10.9	− 9.2	− 9.4	−13.6	−5.4	−11.3
September..	−11.4	−13.2	−11.2	−17.9	−2.5	− 9.3

This table indicates what has been proven in other ways, that improvement is slow and interrupted by temporary setbacks due to seasons, weather, and the influence of the prevailing economical spirit of the country, which delays purchases until supplies are nearly exhausted in trade, as a whole. The drop from a 40 per cent. decrease in Middle State clearings in April to one of 10 per cent. in August is an important development, even though a month later bank exchanges ran off again. New England has been the seat of the greatest industrial depression. Consequently a reduction in the percentage of her loss from about 29 per cent. in April to 9 per cent. in August ought to mean the revival of business on a considerable scale. The changes have been less pronounced in other parts of the country, where the effects of the panic have been less conspicuous and currents of trade more uniform.

THE INCREASE IN RAILROAD EARNINGS.

Quite parallel conditions are uncovered in any analysis of the weekly and monthly gross earnings of the railroads which have reduced by about 50 per cent. the amount of idle cars reported in April. At the low point of the depression the 225,000 miles of operated railroads were earning almost 24 per cent. less than in a similar period of 1907. By the middle of August this percentage had been reduced to about 12 per cent., and stood at a trifle under this ratio in the middle of September, while there were a number of systems which were able to show, week by week, actually more revenues than the year before. The fact that they are almost all saving liberally in net revenues means more to stockholders than to the country at large, as this economy is at the expense of thousands of laborers and of many million dollars' worth of supplies.

The business horizon is not all rose-colored. The monthly records of bankrupts, the reduced dividends, and the occasional receiverships suggest that the air has not yet cleared, nor all of the wreckage from the panic come ashore. But, where you find the strongest feeling of discontent, you will be

most certain to meet with unfavorable comparisons between the years 1908 and 1907 and disappointment that the volume of trade in the most inflated period of the country's history is not now obtaining. Americans would do well to stand off at a distance, to take the European point of view, and put the present with its very comfortable record of production alongside the record that almost every business man during the trying days of October, November, and December, 1907, predicted for September, 1908; also compare the recovery in the United States with the almost imperceptible improvement in England and Germany, where the wonderful vitality and recuperative power of American industry is to-day regarded with amazement and envy.

THE WEST'S RETURN TO CONFIDENCE.

BY CHARLES MOREAU HARGER.

WHEN, a year ago, the shock to business conditions spread in a day from Eastern commercial centers to the remotest interior hamlet, it was to the West for a time an inexplicable happening. So confident had been the trust in the ever-increasing tide of prosperity and so firmly established seemed the basis therefor that boasts were frequent that the West was independent of its Eastern business connections and that nothing on the Atlantic coast could affect the progress of the grain-raising States. This idea had been inculcated by newspapers, by orators, and by street-corner forums. When the country banker was unable to pay his excited depositor in full on demand, he combated a deep-seated conviction that was difficult to change.

As realization and understanding came, there was a revulsion that caused angry words concerning the East and aroused bitter expressions regarding business methods that had brought about such a crisis. To many Westerners the hurt to pride was greater than the injury to purse,—for the latter was not necessarily extensive. The West is impatient; it acts impulsively. The nervous tension during the six weeks following October 28, 1907, recalled to old-time bankers the days of 1893-96, with much greater concentration of the alarm. Many of their customers were unreasonably oppressive, and it was not until well into the winter that limit on currency payments was finally abandoned. The experiences of the depression of fifteen years previous, when the Western banks suffered so acutely, was too fresh in the minds of the depositors to permit them to take long chances.

Chiefly they sought bases for confidence, and these they found in the granaries, cribs, and corrals. The panic came when only a part of the wheat had been marketed and when the corn was not yet gathered. For six weeks there was no currency to be had in payment for grain, and the tendency of the farmer to keep his farm products until he could be assured of something better than cashiers' checks in return was pronounced. As he looked into the well-filled storehouses he decided that he could afford to wait, because he had the things that the world must obtain. It could struggle along without automobiles and could exist with fewer automatic pianos, but it must have bread and meat. His wheat, corn, and cattle were certain to find a market as soon as means could be found to pay him in money acceptable to him. This was soon forthcoming as the readjustment of affairs progressed, and then the agricultural communities of the West discovered another thing in their favor,—high prices maintained for all farm products.

GRAIN SUPPLIES AS A BALANCE-WHEEL.

This was in fact the one condition next to the hope of a good harvest, on which were hung the hopes of the prairie States. The crop of 1907, withheld unusually late from the market, was in demand at figures that insured good income. This resulted from the shortage of supplies on hand, the visible amount of grain in the early spring being less than in many years. It was in America (United States and Canada) only two-thirds of that one year previous and in the world less than in any year since 1903. The prices for grain drew out the supplies, and the farming communities received a steady income at prices which a half-dozen years before would have seemed remarkable, but have now been so settled all season as to stand as a measure for the future from which there is a hesitancy to descend.

HOW IT AFFECTED THE INDIVIDUAL.

The farmer out in the West was thus well equipped for his personal financial salvation. He had regained faith in his bank because it was again paying full sums in currency; he was taking his wheat to market and getting a high price for it, which receipts he added to the bank account; he was watching another crop come to maturity, and with a depleted store on hand in the nation he was certain to reap another rich return. Hence, he came to the beginning of harvest without really having felt the flurry, save for a slight inconvenience during its height. He had as much money and as much grain, with only some weakening of his faith to mark his experience.

Yet he had acquired caution, and he bought with less eagerness than in the days when he thought it was all his way. He spent less for luxuries and invested in necessities carefully. He saw some articles decrease in price and expected a general horizontal reduction all along the line. Hence, his conservatism and the consequent inauguration by the merchants of a hand-to-mouth policy that has prevailed since. Not only did the average country merchant have a large stock on hand,—for the buying of 1907 was liberal,—but he had been having a critical time taking care of his paper while troubles were acute. He determined to be less expansive, to take fewer chances. Hence, he, like the farmer-customer, bought cautiously and in small amounts, the customers' course being reflected in the jobbing centers where have been complaints of the slow movement of goods and the hesitating course of the country merchants.

Thus have the farmer and the merchant modified their methods. The effect has been apparent in the volume of business, which thus far through the year has been moderate, generally below the mark of previous seasons.

WHY THE "LAND CRAZE" KEPT UP.

Another important element influenced the West's situation: the land movement. For eight years real-estate values in the Western States have been advancing. Regularly recurring good crops and unceasing immigration from States farther east have enhanced the worth of farms, and incidentally of city property, until handsome figures represented the selling prices,—generally from 30 to 100 per cent. higher than five years before. It was predicted that these values would fall along with decreases in prices of some other lines of investment. On the contrary, there was a further advance. Added to the elements that had already lifted the market for realty was the desire of a large portion of the Westerners themselves to make fixed investments that neither the stock exchange nor the clearing-house could affect,—and fertile farm-land met their ideal. So, instead of prices of real estate falling, they went on advancing through this new impetus. Money that was withdrawn from banks bought land, much of it to find its way back to the banks through the deposits of the seller.

Why should there be a lessened value for land when the grain income per acre in bushels and the price were alike high? The farmer was satisfied with the results and he held his acres accordingly. Western land values are based on material things, not on sentiment. The so-called "land craze" has been nothing more than the legitimate result of years of good crops. Thirty bushels of wheat at 80 cents means a net profit of $15 an acre. Why should not such land be worth $100 an acre? That was the argument used by the newcomers, who had sold similar land for $150 an acre in Illinois and Ohio; they considered the Western farms cheap.

WHERE THE MONEY WENT.

These things account for much of the farmer's cheerful outlook and for the high measure of courage that has marked his year of experience. He solved the problem of recovery more quickly than did any other class, because he had before him in concrete form the things that make for prosperity and are recognized as certain to hold their possessors above danger.

However, the deposits in the interior banks decreased for a time and the return of the funds was slow. It dragged along through the spring, and only touched approximately the old level with September 1, 1908. It must be remembered that one year's profits had been added to the West's assets, so there is yet on deposit less money than one year ago, proportionately to the customers' real wealth.

What has become of the difference,—the deposits that with a continuance of the former program would have lifted the total to record-breaking proportions? Probably the search for fixed investments of the higher class is responsible for the larger portion. High-class bonds have been bought and the proceeds have gone into construction work in other sections. The restless movement of farmers from one locality to another accounts

for another part. The Southwest and the irrigated sections of the mountain States have proved attractive to thousands, and as they have sold out to buyers from farther east they have taken their proceeds and reinvested in newer sections. Doubtless much has been hoarded, and as the new crop has come on there has been a hope for higher prices, with the resultant holding of grain in the bin as an absolutely safe investment. But all this will readjust itself, as the larger operations in which the farming communities are interested expand,—and there is a changing order that calls for the use of larger capital.

BANKERS AND THEIR INVESTMENTS.

To the bankers the present autumn has brought a feeling of confidence. Their deposit accounts are satisfactory and their loans are doubtless on a safer basis than at any time in the past decade. Caution and conservatism have been their motto for twelve months, and they have endeavored to clean up every doubtful account,—or charge it off the books. Their profits are probably not so large on paper, but their real condition is better. The Western banker has gained much in breadth of vision from the sharp corrective of last fall's experience. He is not the liberal buyer of securities that he was a year ago; he scans the offerings of commercial paper more closely, and pins his faith to the notes of old-established houses, preferably those of merchandising or of the handling of foodstuffs,—again a recurrence to things that the world must have. It is probable that his attitude toward the East as a reserve center has changed little, for he recognizes the business expediency of such connections, but he protects himself by scattering his accounts and carries a larger supply of currency than formerly.

WHAT THE HARVEST HAS DONE.

The harvest of the great wheat-raising States has been well up to the average, and, with the high prices, is to return more money to the farmer than in many years. While the country's total wheat crop is estimated at 40,000,000 bushels more than last year, it is yet 60,000,000 bushels below that of the previous season, and the farmer has little reason to fear material lessening of values. The corn is promising well in the interior States, and lessened yield in some of the older-settled ones may make this likewise a remarkably profitable year for producers of that cereal. Contracts are being made at this writing at prices giving abundant return for the farmer's toil. Minor crops have been generous in the prairie States, with good prices. Altogether, it has been a goodly year and one that has given the farmer a feeling of independence. His stable position is certain to have effect on every sort of industry and every enterprise.

TRADE OUTLOOK FOR LATE AUTUMN.

Naturally, the immediate concern of the business man is the trade outlook for late fall and early winter. Hand-to-mouth buying is exasperating to wholesalers, and they wonder why with all this substantial condition back of them the country merchants remain cautious. They forget that the country merchant's customers have been likewise slow buyers, waiting for a certainty of return to former conditions. Until there is a change here there can be none at the central markets. That this change is coming is the testimony of those familiar with the situation. The interior communities are so firmly convinced of their impregnable position that they are becoming more liberal spenders,—and purchases are on a cash basis, not on long credit. Indications are that late autumn buying will be generous and the movement of merchandise in the country towns, and in the interior cities, one of the most satisfactory in many years. This should persuade the merchants to purchase farther in the future and give a stronger tone to trade.

The West's recovery has been real. It has had for its basis the products of soil and rain and sunshine, a combination that when combined with the modern intelligence of farming methods is irresistible. While these continue, the interior, fortified as it is with greater assets than at any time in its history, cannot suffer. It may halt in panic times, but it is certain to regain quickly its old position and to advance to greater wealth.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE LABOR UNION VOTE AND THE PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGN.

"THE political movement of the American Federation of Labor presents the aspect of a junta of labor chiefs directing the votes of millions. Never before has this been attempted; unions have gone into politics, leaders have used their influence for political advantage, but there is no record of leaders taking authority into their hands to make terms with political parties, and, acting on their own judgment, undertaking to instruct or advise the membership as to the casting of its votes. In this case there exists besides, in the law of the union, express prohibitions against such use of authority." These words occur in an article in the *North American Review* by Mr. Henry White. Mr. White, it may be mentioned, founded the United Garment Workers of America, and represented that body at the conventions of the American Federation of Labor. On the appointment of Governor Roosevelt, he represented the State of New York at the National Trust Conference in Chicago in 1900.

The American Federation of Labor from its foundation in 1881 till two years ago kept strictly aloof from politics. For this aloofness there must have existed a strong reason; and this reason, Mr. White thinks, may be found in the fate of its predecessor, the National Labor Union, which had a membership of over 200,000. "After an existence of six years, the Union at Columbus, in 1872, nominated a Presidential ticket and never met again." Then there was the United Labor party, organized by the New York Central Labor Union. This body nominated Henry George for Mayor, and he came a close second to Abram S. Hewitt. "The following year, in a campaign for Secretary of State, George lost in the city more than half of his votes; and the year after the Labor party went to pieces. . . . In other cities, at different times, similar attempts were made and, with an exception here and there, met precisely the same fate." Wisely profiting by these experiences, the American Federation of Labor in 1895 adopted in its constitution this clause:

> Party politics, whether they be Democratic, Republican, Socialistic, Populistic, Prohibition, or any other, shall have no place in the conventions of the American Federation of Labor.

After the first Bryan campaign, in 1896, the Federation resolved that

> no officer of the American Federation of Labor shall be allowed to use his official position in the interest of either political party.

Again, in 1898, the Federation distinctly declared that it was not within its province to designate to which political party a member should belong or for which he should vote.

This policy of abstention from politics afforded a means not only of protection against the politicians, but of keeping the movement out of the hands of the Socialists. The labor leaders taught

> that the advancement of the working class was to be sought through their economic power, the control of the labor market, and that political power was a will-o'-the-wisp, ever luring the workers into the quagmire of partisan strife.

President Gompers himself, in his report to the Federation convention in 1896, stated that

> men were unable to realize how one could be consistent enough or stanch enough to be governed by the single purpose to try and steer our craft of trade-unionism clear from the shoals and the rocks upon which so many of labor's previous efforts were wrecked.

He now changes his course. He takes the stand "that, a crisis having arrived in the life of the labor movement, the union must either strike a blow at its enemies at the ballot-box or submit to the thraldom of the courts." The "crisis" is, of course, the application of the injunction. But, as Mr. White very pertinently asks, is organized labor really so imperiled by the injunction as to justify the Federation leaders in exposing the labor movement to the manifold dangers that they themselves have asserted are inseparable from political action? The unions have steadily grown in spite of the injunction, and Mr. Gompers has failed to show that the unions have been hampered by it.

Hitherto Mr. Gompers and his colleagues have put the integrity of the unions before everything else. Now this integrity becomes of secondary consequence; the labor leaders suddenly discover that organized labor is menaced by the courts; all their previous reasoning is reversed; and politics, formerly held to be subordinate to economic action, is made the medium of the union's deliverance.

The Federation leaders have decided to cast in their lot with the Democratic party; but an important body of organized labor, the International Typographical Union, has refused to fall in with Mr. Gompers' plans, and has even threatened to withdraw from the Federation if it becomes a political body; and other signs are not wanting that Mr. Gompers' course will not be plain sailing.

Mr. Gompers maintains that he has no intention other than to "advise." These, however, are his own words:

> We have no hesitation in urging the workers and our friends throughout the country to support the party in this campaign which has shown its sympathy with our wrongs, and its desire to remedy them.

This comes "perilously near an assumption of power to deliver the labor vote, which Mr. Gompers vehemently denies."

NEGRO GOVERNMENTS IN THE NORTH.

TO the student of the so-called race problem, and, indeed, to all citizens interested in the development of our colored population, many important facts and new data have been presented in the series of articles on the economic condition of the Northern negroes, which has been appearing in the *Southern Workman,* the magazine issued by the Normal and Agricultural Institute for negroes and Indians, at Hampton, Va. The fourth article, in the September number, is a study, by Mr. Richard R. Wright, Jr., of places in the Northern States where the machinery of local government is in the hands of negroes. Three types of government are selected for consideration:

1.—A township government.
2.—A municipal government.
3.—A paternal government.

The township described by Mr. Wright as representative of the first type is that of Calvin, in Cass County, Mich., situated about ninety miles east of Chicago, and ninety-five miles west of Detroit. In slavery times fugitive slaves found a home among the Quakers who had settled here, and a number of manumitted slaves from the South were sent to the community by their masters. By 1860 there were 1368 negroes in Cass County, and 795 of these were located in Calvin Township. Although forming a majority of the population, the negroes for many years took no active part in municipal affairs, and it was not till 1875 that one of their number was elected to public office. In that year a colored farmer was elected township treasurer; and for the past decade and a half the government has been in the hands of the colored inhabitants. Mr. Wright gives many interesting details, from which we select the following:

> The township officers are supervisor, clerk, treasurer, road commissioners, and school directors, all of whom, with one exception, are colored. The supervisor presides over the town meeting, and the present incumbent has been elected seven times. Four school districts are administered by negro commissioners, who have entire charge of the school fund. This fund averages $1700 annually, out of a total sum of about $6350 raised from taxation. There are 163 negroes on the tax books: Fifty-five own e ch from twenty to forty acres; thirteen, from 80 to 120 acres; and fifty-five, from twenty to forty acres. The whole of the land owned by negroes is probably worth $400,000. According to a conservative estimate, the total wealth of the community is more than $1500 per capita; several families are reported to be worth from $50,000 to $100,000.

Brooklyn, Ill., represents Type 2, a negro municipal government. Before the Civil War it was one of the stations of the "Underground Railroad," through which many fugitives passed on their way to Canada. In 1907 the population numbered 1600, of whom 1350 were negroes. The latter are mainly railroad section hands and laborers in the local stockyards and steel foundry. As most of the work calls for physical strength rather than intelligence, it is not surprising that the negroes are more or less illiterate and undisciplined. The politicians rule, and corruption is rampant.

> The officers are: Mayor, treasurer, attorney, clerk, street inspector, fire chief, chief of police, and six members of the village council. All, except the attorney, are negroes. The Mayor, the sixth negro to hold the office, is by profession a teacher, and is a man far above the average

of his community intellectually. In 1907 there were 192 arrests, the proportion of offenders being 71 whites to 121 negroes. There are two schools: One for whites, with forty pupils and one teacher; the other for negroes only, with 120 pupils and three teachers. In national politics every one is Republican. The town has eight saloons, mostly conducted by whites.

It is pleasant to turn to the third type, the representative of which is Buxton, Iowa. The town has an interesting history. Twenty or more years ago J. E. Buxton, a pioneer in the coal-mining business in Iowa, was confronted with a strike among his white miners. He secured negroes to work in the place of the strikers, and they proved so satisfactory that they have been retained ever since. As the wealth of the Consolidated Coal Company was produced largely by the labor of these negroes, Mr. Buxton's son, B. C. Buxton, decided to build and found a negro town, and to name it after his father. Buxton was thus founded in 1901, and to-day it is a thriving town of more than 5000 inhabitants, with a larger number of negroes than any town north of Missouri.

As general superintendent of the coal company, Mr. B. C. Buxton is practically the sole employer of labor, but he uses his power philanthropically. The wages paid at the mines are so high that there are always applicants for work. There are about 1000 houses in the town, and Mr. Buxton is especially strict in the matter of rentals. No single man can rent one, and any family having any kind of disorder in their house is promptly requested to move, which means moving from the town also. Loafers are not allowed in Buxton: if a man will not work, he must "clear out."

The town is not incorporated; therefore there is no Mayor or other elective administrative officers. All administration is performed through the superintendent of the coal company. . . . The postmaster is a negro; so is the superintendent of public schools; two justices of the peace, two constables, and two deputy sheriffs are all colored.

As all the men work, there is much money in Buxton: the problem is, how best to use it. No real estate can be purchased, so some put their surplus money in the bank; others invest in mining-stock; and, of course, some spend their earnings foolishly.

We summarize Mr. Wright's further observations on this unique community:

There is practically no crime. A year ago saloons were voted out of the county. Everything is done in the town to encourage thoughtfulness and thrift. The relations of the white minority to the black majority are most cordial. No case of assault by a black man on a white woman has ever been heard of in Buxton. Both races go to school together; both go to the same soda-water fountains, ice-cream fountains, and restaurants; both work in the same mines, clerk in the same stores, and live side by side. There is no social equality among the negroes: they group themselves according to character and intelligence. Buxton is predominently Republican.

The contrast presented by the three types under consideration is, as Mr. Wright remarks, "sufficient to show that it is impossible to lay down any wholesale laws regarding negro government."

IS THE CONQUEST OF THE AIR WORTH WHILE?

A COLD douche of matter-of-fact difficulties is poured in the *Nineteenth Century* by Prof. Simon Newcomb on ardent speculators who dream of aerial navies. Even given ideal mechanism under known laws and with known materials, he shows the very serious obstacles in the way of progress.

Drawbacks to every form of flyer which seem fatal to its extensive use are:

1. It must present to the air a horizontal surface proportional to the entire weight to be carried, including motor machine and cargo. The present extent of the successful flyers suggests a practically unmanageable area of supporting surface and consequent weakening of the machine.

2. The flyer can never stop to have its machinery repaired or adjusted. Steamships would be little use if they went to the bottom every time an accident happened to the machinery.

3. The flyer cannot be navigated out of sight of ground or in a fog.

These difficulties do not apply to the airship. But there are others which are, to say the least, very formidable.

Comparing the airship with the railway train, Professor Newcomb points out that the main resistance an express train has to encounter is that of the air. The airship will have to be much larger in size than the railway train; would encounter much greater resistance; would require more propelling power.

To compete with the steamship in ocean traffic (1) the airship would have to be half a mile long and 600 feet in diameter. "His ship might then be able to carry some 10,000 tons of cargo, or 15,000 passengers."

(2) The wind would affect the airship by its entire velocity. A normal speed of 100 miles an hour would be reduced to one-half by a contrary wind blowing at fifty miles an hour.

(3) The airship could not find her way or land in a fog.

But the most serious of the professor's criticisms are those directed against the supposed utility of airships as a munition of war:

The flyer is out of the question. The airship proper, or enlarged balloon, is the only agency to be feared. Her vulnerability is obvious. Her size is so great as to make her an easy target; her sides so thin that she can be pierced through and through by any bullet, even that of a revolver; and her interior composed of gas so inflammable that an explosive bullet would reduce her to a mass of flame. A single yeoman armed with a repeating rifle could disable a whole fleet of airships approaching the ground within range of his station before the crews could even see where he was or what he was doing. How many such vehicles would be required to carry and land, with all its accoutrements, an armed force sufficiently large to be a menace need hardly be computed. To carry out the enterprise the fleet must either operate at night or choose an hour when the country is enveloped in fog. Saying nothing of the difficulties inherent in navigating the air and of choosing a point of landing when the ground is invisible, it would be easy by a system of searchlights to make a landing as difficult at night as during the day. Should advantage be taken of a smoky and foggy day, with a view of landing without being seen, the difficulties would be as great on the side of the aerial vehicle as on that of the defence against it. The navigator of an airship must at all times be at the disadvantages already mentioned, one of which is that of being always carried with the wind, and of knowing nothing of his motion at the moment except what he can learn by observing the ground. He would therefore be unable to find his way in a fog. Above the region of fog and cloud he might in an uncertain way be guided by observations of the sun or stars, but this would be much more uncertain than in the navigation of a ship, owing to the want of a clear horizon. The more closely one analyzes the conditions and the requirements of an invading force, the more clearly it will be seen that the idea of invading England with a formidable army borne in airships is quite chimerical.

Above the range of bullets, the dropping of bombs on a city like London would do damage, but would be a wanton barbarism, without avail in conquering a country. From so high an altitude it would be difficult to drop bombs so as to fall exactly on a fortress or battleship below. Even falling on the deck of a ship the bomb would do little harm, nothing compared with the effect of a torpedo below the ship.

The professor's most trenchant objection, which may be commended to Count Zeppelin and all who imagine he will revolutionize war, is as follows:

If a single airship or, to guard against accident, two or three, can, by watching a favorable opportunity, destroy an aerial navy in its own country in any stage of its construction, may we not assume that no power is going on to make any great effort to develop such a navy after the possibilities are fully appreciated?

The considerations advanced by Professor Newcomb may not be decisive, but they certainly tend to rob the Zeppelin airship of its terrors.

INEFFICIENCY OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

AT first sight it seems somewhat paradoxical to judge of peace institutions, as our public schools may be said to be, by war institutions like the academies at West Point and Annapolis; yet Col. Charles W. Larned is doubtless correct in saying (in the *North American Review*) that "the opportunities for testing the efficiency of public-school instruction throughout the country are exceptionally good" at the two Government establishments in question, candidates for admission to which are "drawn from every Congressional district of every State and Territory in the Union." Speaking for the Military Academy at West Point, he states that it is recruited largely "from the class of our citizens who send their children to the primary and high schools." For many years the entrance examinations covered only the following requirements:

To be able to read distinctly and pronounce correctly; to write a fair legible hand; to perform with facility and accuracy the various operations of the ground rules of arithmetic, both simple and compound; also those of reduction, of single and compound proportion; vulgar and decimal fractions.

To these were added in 1866:

A knowledge of the elements of English grammar; of descriptive geography, particularly of our own country, and of the history of the United States.

For a long time the academic authorities endeavored to secure an advance of the entrance examination standard, but it was not until 1901 that Congress agreed to place the determination of the standard in the hands of the Secretary of War. Besides the physical examination, a written examination in the following subjects is now required of all candidates:

Elementary algebra through quadratics; plane geometry; English grammar; English literature and composition (very elementary); United States history (high school); general history (high school); geography (descriptive, common school).

It will be seen that these requirements are no more than should be easily met by a graduate of any well-organized high school. The first application of this new standard took place last March.

The results are very depressing, and afford an extremely interesting and somewhat pathetic commentary on the general efficiency of public-school methods throughout the country. . . . Out of 314 who took the entering examinations this year, 265, or 84 per cent., failed in one or more subjects; 95, or 30 per cent., in four or more; and 26, or 8 per cent., in everything.

From a comparison of figures by States we select the following:

	Examined.	Failed.
California	10	8
Colorado	6	5
Illinois	12	10
Michigan	10	9
New York	37	20
Ohio	14	10
Pennsylvania	17	11

Of the 314 examined, 295 had been educated in public schools; and the average number of years of attendance in these schools was nine years and eleven months. The foregoing figures relate to the mental examination only. In the physical examination eighty-two failed and were rejected. Altogether, says Colonel Larned, it is a sorry showing from whatever standpoint it is viewed; and most persons will be inclined to agree with him.

Of the quality of the examination papers a general idea may be gained from examples quoted in Colonel Larned's article, a few of which are subjoined.

"'F,' from New Jersey, had been ten years in grammar school and five months at a technological high school. . . . He writes 'orbet,' 'gess,' 'orther,' 'cival,' 'barbarious.' As to the causes of the war for the Union, he judges that 'slavery was the main aggitation. So Carolina done most of the disputting and finely ceceeded,'—which cannot be gainsaid.

"'I,' from Massachusetts, had been eight years in a grammar school, four years in a technical high school, and one year in a training school,—*thirteen years in all.* He was deficient in everything but geography. This young gentleman knew nothing of Grecian history and very little about any other, and asserted that 'Alexander the Great, a Roman commander, conquered Gaul, North Africa, Greece, Persia, and Palestine.'

"'J,' from Michigan, after ten years and five months in the public schools, was deficient in every subject. Regarding the Reformation, we are informed that it 'was in England when the trouble of the churches was over. The leader was Queen Elizabeth.'

"'K,' from Arkansas, after ten years in the public schools, was convinced that 'Alexander the Great was an English general.'

"'M,' a young man from Mississippi, of good family, after eight years of mental effort . . . made a clean sweep of every subject. . . . He finds Athens and Sparta 'on the Tigress.' . . . On the Spanish Inquisition, 'Spanish King tried to make every one join the Catholic church, but the Spaniards protested against it and was carried as planed by the King.' In geography he was without bias or partiality. Cape Cod is assigned to the Eastern Coast of North America. . . . The Ganges goes to South America; the Seine to England; the Dneiper to Canada. Hongkong does duty as the capital of Japan,—a sinister suggestion; Cuba settles west of the Philippine Islands, with Hawaii just north, while the Congo River, disgusted with the performances of His Belgian Majesty, flees sadly to China."

If 16,596,503 boys and girls, taught in our public schools at a cost of $376,996,472, average no better in intellectual attainments than is evidenced by the foregoing, does, asks Colonel Larned, the result justify the outlay, and the ten or more years of school labor on the part of the pupil? And as regards body-training, "the 30 per cent. of physical deficiency in our youth is a condition which may well give concern."

The work of the Public School Athletic League is thus warmly endorsed:

The American people owe a debt of gratitude whose value can hardly be exaggerated to the originator, prime mover, and president of this great organization, Gen. George W. Wingate, of New York City. He has not only demonstrated how physical education can be made effective in public instruction, but he has proved its immense power as an agent in moral uplift and mental stimulus. Every citizen who has at heart the well-being of the community should read the report of the league, and insist that its functions shall be incorporated by law in the public-school system everywhere. It is inspiring to see what wonders can be accomplished by persistent effort against discouraging conditions, and how rapidly the whole body of neglected childhood has responded to this appeal to its human nature. The result is more than reform; it is revolution, and holds a brighter promise for the future than anything that has been effected in education in modern times.

WHERE COLONISTS ARE WANTED IN EUROPE.

BETWEEN the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, there is but a difference of 700 square miles,—in favor of Sicily, whose area is very close upon 10,000 square miles (and therefore rather larger than that of New Jersey, Massachusetts, or Vermont). In point of population, however, the difference is as four to one in terms of inhabitants per square mile, so that Sardinia, which by virtue of its size ought to have over three million people in order to be as densely inhabited as Sicily, only has 800,000. Why?

One answer is: malaria. Taking the province of Cagliari (with 500,000 inhabitants), the year 1900 witnessed 1260 deaths from that disease, representing at least 100,000 cases, with a loss of 400,000 labor days. And the reason for so much malaria is that the island has enormous tracts of swamp land and no drainage system whatever.

It may be said that up to the present time the great enemy of our country has always been water, whereas it ought to have been our greatest source of wealth. . . . It is the cause, in our country, of an infinite number of ills. It stagnates and becomes putrid in the swamps; it often flows into our villages, where it is used for drinking, full of impurities; it rushes down irregularly in unexpected freshets and floods, imperiling human life and destroying in a moment the labor of many hands; it is the principal agent of that malaria, which, when it does not kill, infects the blood, weakens the fibers, and ruins confidence and enthusiasm; our race, attainted in its constitution, languishes and degenerates from loss of vigor. . . . With systematized drainage, irrigation [for there are large arid tracts also], and water-works . . . we may hope for good results; but without these complete changes it is useless to think of any real colonization.

Thus the Sardinian Deputy Scano,—writing in the *Nuova Antologia,*—who urges an active governmental (*i.e.,* national) and local water-policy, so to speak, and who believes that settlers will be attracted from other parts of the kingdom if recent legislation facilitating such a policy be effectively acted upon. Certainly the Deputy's country needs a large supply of the peasant class, for he himself estimates that "the total of actual farmers does not reach a hundred thousand in the whole of Sardinia." Besides, "During the third quarter of the past year about three thousand of our strongest and healthiest laborers left the island." Education, he avers, is in a deficient state, and the moral training of children not what it ought to be; more primary and technical schools are sorely required: "Statistics declare that 65 per cent. of the population can neither read nor write, while for every 100,000 of the population 1310 thefts and twenty-one homicides are recorded."

Between inundations and droughts, scarcity of hands, disease, want of energy, obsolete methods and machinery of agriculture, lack of internal communications, the farming industry has remained in a very backward condition. This has been somewhat improved, of late years, according to the deputy, by the introduction of new implements and more scientific modes of cultivation; and he has strong hopes in the government's railway policy as formulated in special laws passed for the benefit of Sardinia last year.

A less sanguine writer on the subject of Sardinia's future is Signor Leopoldo Carta, who contributes to *Varietas* a brief but loud bark of discontent.

Our isle of silence, to be sure, is furrowed by a few railroads, but the customary means of transportation are still those in vogue two or three centuries ago. The Sardinian peasant, besides his dog and his gun, has his horse for an inseparable companion, and by that aid goes to work,—in the fields or in the mountains,—carries his provisions and agricultural implements, or travels for business or pleasure. . . . It is especially the horse that is used for locomotion and for communication between one part of the country and another. . . . Thus in the century of the automobile Sardinia remains far behind the nations in their rapid rush of progress. And why should this be so? The causes are many, but I believe that we owe the employment of our antediluvian contrivances,—from the Greek plow, which the plowman carries to the field upright on horseback, to the Roman cart that goes at the pace of two miles an hour,—chiefly to those who do not call the railroad companies to account, and allow them to maintain the present scandalous rates which hinder the already languishing traffic of the island instead of promoting it. . . . The country folk cannot permit themselves the luxury of traveling by the Sardinian railways, which, richly subventioned by the State, make the most exorbitant charges. . . . This is no doubt one of the thoughtful and pious benefits bestowed upon us by the thousand laws supposed to elevate the destiny of Sardinia, but which have contributed more and more to her impoverishment.

However, the other writer, Signor Scano, is not altogether a rosy optimist, because, although he speaks of the extension of automobile roads as promising, he adds that "it will be more difficult, given our wretched economic conditions, to profit by the advantageous legislation concerning the installment and operation of mechanical traction-trams

and new steam railroads." As for the various industries that might be developed, besides the obvious shipping and fishing, if immigration from the mainland took the place of emigration from the island, as a consequence of numerous other ifs, malarial, hydraulical, agricultural, tractional, legislatorial, economical, moral, etc., Signor Scano, that zealous parliamentary representative of a region romantic rather than agreeable, grows enthusiastic over the future possibilities of the island and exclaims:

And what kinds and quantities of industries might not flourish here, which would give occupation to thousands of workmen, and at the same time yield large returns on the capital invested! It will suffice to mention a few: Marble, granite, iron, cement, lithographic stones, timber, sugar, tobacco, paper, glass, oil products, sweetmeats, cotton goods, preserved foods of all sorts, and many other industries of greater or lesser importance.

FRANCE'S CAMPAIGN AGAINST IMMORAL LITERATURE.

SO much has been said and printed in recent years about the inferiority of French morals, especially as pertains to the publication of obscene literature and pictures, that an organized effort is being made in that country to show the outside world that these reports are greatly exaggerated. It is even claimed that the worst of the books published as "French" are in reality only the output of foreigners in Paris, but exhibited and sold abroad. According to the *Journal des Debats* (Paris), the effect of the work to be done for morality and public decency by the International Congress for the Suppression of Obscenity will either stamp out the evil entirely or else act as a useful advertisement of it.

Whatever the eventual benefit or loss may be, it is to be hoped that the open denial of taking any part in the pernicious work, proclaimed by the representative of the Association of Men of Letters of France, may dissipate the almost universal misunderstanding in regard to our literature. It is a known fact that infamous libels upon literature and art are sold in foreign countries as French books, cards, and pictures. Libellous publications written in coarse so-called "French" are introduced into the foreign markets as something spicy, *risqué*, piquant, or something "French." These venomous, shoddy products of masked authors and masked printers are not the products of France, but they pass for French products, and as people are judged by their works, it is easy to guess what sort of a reputation we bear beyond our frontiers.

The writer in the *Journal des Debats* cites the case of an American family who had lived in Paris some years, loved the country, and approved of its institutions, but who frankly avowed that when they arrived in Paris they had expected to find a society of satyrs.

Their conversion is what comes of letting a nation prove what it is. The foreigner who judges France by obscene publications,—so-called "French,"—takes us and will continue to take us for a nation of satyrs. How many are there who give us a chance to show that we are harmless? The majority believe our traducers, the publishers of immoral works, who, in the words of Lecomte, the representative of the Men of Letters in the International Congress against Pornography, "stain the beautiful and noble flag of France and use it as a mask for their impurity."

It is not to be denied, says the *Journal des Debats,* that there are in France writers whose talent is too loosely curbed.

We do not deny that our literature, whose theme is almost always emotional love, may have given the world reason to expect to find in us excessive freedom of manners. We do not deny that our realism may have contributed to strengthen the idea of a too broad latitude of action. But is France the only country where vice slips into social economy under the auspices of art or literature? Is France the only country where there are pessimists and libertines? Why is it that vice,—the vice of the low-minded, the least spiritual, and the most animal,—should be known as the vice of France? It is well that we are making an effort to prove that the immoral publications printed by foreigners in France do not in any way represent our literature or our art.

M. Beranger, founder of the Anti-Vice League and president of the International Congress mentioned above, has recalled the fact that France has hitherto, to her discredit, endured the vice of immoral publication, which is the common view of the civilized world. France is commonly considered the chief factor in the dissemination of pornographic literature and pictures. This special crime is outside the law, but it is an outrage to the law, and France is endeavoring to bring it within the limits of specified crime.

By the convention of the International Society for the Suppression of Pornography,

all nations signing the international agreement make it a felony to manufacture, exhibit, or sell, either openly or secretly, whether acting as individuals or business associates, pernicious books, pictures, cards, or other objects tending to demoralize. The act of manufacture, the act of exhibition, and the act of sale of questionable publications or objects of morally sullying influence are to be made felonies. Probably the name pornography is the most subtly analytical and characteristically expressive title that could be given to the vice appealing to instincts below the level of the average brute.

IS DARWINISM PLAYED OUT?

THE veteran scientist, Dr. Alfred Russel Wallace, now in his eighty-sixth year, whose name will always be linked with that of Darwin as the discoverer of the law of evolution, analyzes in the *Contemporary Review* for August certain theories which in recent years have been advanced to supersede Darwinism, the latter, according to one reviewer, being "an unsuccessful hypothesis." These theories are commonly known as those of (1) the Neo-Lamarckists, (2) the Mutationists, and (3) the Mendelians.

(1) Lamarck, the great French zoologist, was the first to propose a detailed scientific theory of the origin of the various species of organisms by a natural process of modification; but, says Dr. Wallace, his views were never widely adopted by naturalists, because it was clear that they would not account for all the facts.

> This theory was, briefly, that every organ or part used in satisfying a creature's wants was increased in strength or size, or otherwise modified, by use and effort; that the modifications thus produced were transmitted to their offspring, and thus led in the course of time to the production of the diverse forms we see everywhere in nature. In the case of plants, it was more especially the direct influence of the environment. . . . The author tells us that otters, beavers, water-fowl, frogs, and turtles were not made webfooted in order that they might swim; but, their wants having attracted them to the water in search of food, they stretched out the toes of their feet to strike the water and more rapidly move along its surface, and thus, in course of time, the broad membranes that now connect their toes were produced.

Zoologists, however, soon decided that many of the characters of animals could not possibly have been produced by use or by disuse. For example, "how could hair change into the prickles of the hedgehog, the erectile spines of the porcupine, the nose-horn of the rhinoceros? . . . How could any possible *use* of the wing-coverts of the peacock, the wings of the Argus-pheasant, produce the wonderful developments of feathers, quite useless for either flight or covering, which we find in those birds?" The same question may be asked with regard to the infinitely varied colors and patterns upon the wings of butterflies and the wings of birds. Likewise, in the case of plants, the botanist found that the innumerable structural diversities in leaf and flower could not possibly have been the result of environment.

After having been dropped for half a century as being inadequate, Lamarckism was revived, mainly through the influence of the American paleontologist Cope, who in his last work, "The Primary Factors of Organic Evolution," asserts that "the stimuli of chemical and physical forces, and also molar motion, or use and its absence, are abundantly sufficient to produce variations of all kinds in organic beings." Many American biologists adopted this theory; but "since Cope's death, in 1897, a decided change of opinion has taken place, and some very valuable experiments, showing the universal action of natural selection, have been carried out." Dr. Wallace cites as the most important of these Mr. William Lawrence Tower's experiments and observations on the *Leptinotarsa,* a genus of beetles. Tower annihilates the Lamarckian theory in the statement that "there exists at present not one single fact to show the inheritance of acquired somatic variations or their incorporation in the germ-plasm." He states further:

> I am therefore of the opinion that the evolution of the genus *Leptinotarsa,* and of animals in general, has been continuous and direct, developing new species in migrating races by direct response to the conditions of existence. In this evolution natural selection has acted to determine the persistence of new variations.

(2) The theory of mutation was founded in 1901 by Dr. Hugo de Vries, of Amsterdam, in his work, "Die Mutations Theorie." De Vries made an elaborate study for several years of the *Œnothera Lamarckiana,* a species of evening primrose that has run wild in Holland. After growing this plant from seed in large quantities, "a few individuals

were found of such different appearance in foliage, mode of growth, size, etc., as to appear like distinct species." These are termed "mutations," and they are said to come as true from seed as the parent plant.

De Vries, therefore, maintains that they *are* new species which he has actually seen produced; and from this experiment with a single species of plant he comes to the tremendous conclusion that it is in this way that new species are produced, *per saltum*, not by the slower process of variation and selection, as maintained by Darwin. Yet all his efforts to find a wild European plant behaving in the same way have been so far in vain.

So eminent an authority on the subject as Sir W. Thiselton Dyer says that under cultural conditions "mutations inevitably appear sooner or later; therefore their appearance should be more frequent in nature than in cultivation, because the former has a larger population to work with. But it is not so." Mr. Tower, to whom reference has been made above, concludes "that all inheritable variations behave alike, and in no case is there any evidence of a fundamental difference between 'mutants' and any other heritable variations. . . . There is then no necessary incongruity between gradual small variation and rapid large variation in the origin of species, but the two are the extremes of the same process." This, says Dr. Wallace, "entirely cuts away the basis of the mutation theory."

(3) Mendelism takes its name from Abbot Mendel, of Brünn, who studied natural science at Vienna and for many years carried on systematic experiments in hybridization in his monastery garden. He discovered a new law relating to crossed plants, now known as "Mendel's Law," which he published in 1866, and which remained forgotten by Continental botanists until 1900. Mendel experimented chiefly with the common garden pea. He found that when two different varieties were crossed the hybrids were of one kind only. In the case of yellow and blue, the hybrids were all yellow. But his special discovery was that when these yellow peas, the product of the first cross, were grown by themselves, the result was both kinds in the proportion of three yellow to one green, both colors appearing in the same pod. The final result of a number of generations is that yellows and greens occur in equal proportions. Dr. Wallace shows, from Darwin's own works, that the fundamental facts of Mendelism were well known to Darwin, who in 1868 published his views concerning them.

The reason why Darwin did not prosecute the research further was . . . that he was quite satisfied . . . that hybridization, or the intercrossing of very distinct forms, had no place whatever in the natural process of species-formation.

So far from being played out, Darwinism is,—in Dr. Wallace's words,—"the only intelligible clue to the mighty labyrinth of nature." To loving students of nature "the claims of the Mutationists and the Mendelians, as made by many of their ill-informed supporters, are ludicrous in their exaggeration and total misapprehension of the problem they profess to have solved."

REMINISCENCES OF THE FINANCIAL TROUBLES OF HALF A CENTURY.

IN a recent *Forum* Mr. Louis Windmüller, a New York merchant, whose name will be familiar to readers of the REVIEW, gives an interesting account of the money troubles of the past fifty years. In 1857 he was already established in business, and he had learned by the failure of the Ohio Life Insurance & Trust Company how to face the difficulties incident to almost every panic.

He drew in current bills some money from a Williamsburg bank and $100 in gold from the Bank of New York. When subsequently almost every financial institution this side of the Rockies closed its doors, the writer would play chess in his office with his clerk, while his distracted neighbors chased the fleeting shadows of ephemeral bankers.

Wampum had been discarded, clearing-house certificates had not yet been invented, and coin was scarce. The circulating medium consisted of notes issued by banks in different parts of the country, some under guaranty of a safety fund held by States, others by so-called "free banks." While the former generally passed at their face values, bills of the latter, named also "wildcats," ranged, according to their redemptive qualities, at ½ to 10 per cent. discount. The possibility of their being presented for payment never troubled the banker's mind when he stamped them "Payable at his counter," and forwarded them for circulation.

An inquisitive New York broker once ventured to send his clerk with a satchel full of such bills to a town in Illinois; he found a log

cabin on a prairie road, with a sign of the bank over the door, and a "cashier" the only occupant. He expressed his profuse regrets that the president happened to be in Chicago and that he had taken the cash-box with him.

At the outset of the panic of 1857 the remaining institutions of that class became insolvent.

Credit was so expensive, he says, that as much as 1 per cent. was demanded for a single day's accommodation. Merchants who declined this high rate of usury failed to meet their engagements, and manufacturers, when their customers defaulted, were obliged to discharge their workmen and close their mills.

The commercial crisis of 1860-61 was caused by the attempted secession of the Southern States. Southern merchants, who had always been "slow payers," "came to consider it treason to pay any Northern creditor who did not sympathize with the slaveholders' cause."

One of these, a New York merchant, was induced personally to go South to collect his outstanding accounts. As money was unobtainable, he took rosin, cotton, or any commodity he could get instead, and, by a sloop chartered at Wilmington, N. C., he consigned this merchandise to New York, with instructions to store on arrival. After his Southern claims were thus secured this ardent patriot stumped the Carolinas and Georgia for freedom, until he was himself deprived of it. Mistaken for a Northern spy, he lingered for some time in Southern dungeons. When finally liberated he returned to New York and found his Wilmington cargo in his Brooklyn warehouse. The rosin he accepted for $1 was worth $40, while Sea Island cotton, which cost him 12 cents, was worth 90 cents a pound. Although these prices were paid in depreciated money, the small cargo realized a large fortune.

When Fort Sumter surrendered it was predicted that grass would grow in Wall Street, New York. Although these anticipations were not realized, at one time a third of the commercial buildings on lower Broadway in New York City were to let.

The real cause of the panic of 1893 was the withdrawal of foreign capital, which had become scared by the agitation for free silver; but the crisis was precipitated by the exposition of the fraud connected with the Old Cordage Company. The managers of this concern had

incorporated at fictitious values one ropewalk after another. Of the millions ostensibly paid to control the market a portion may have been alloted for dividends made, to establish a fictitious market value for the stock. Nobody ever discovered what became of the rest of the money.

When industrials began to tumble, the writer, requested by an old crony to lunch with him at the Lawyers' Club, was surprised to find his wealthy friend pressed for margins he could not furnish. He received numerous messages through the club's waiters before the roast was served, and was harassed by a call to the 'phone after every glass of wine we raised to our lips. G. had temporarily assisted the writer when his Southern customers refused to pay in 1861. So we first obtained a respite from the importunate brokers, and then a promise of the money to pay them for the stocks they carried.

On the night of that same day, as member of an entertainment committee, the writer attended the ball given to the Spanish Princess Eulalia, and forgot the crisis. He was reminded some weeks later, at the Plankington Hotel, of its existence, when a Western friend described the drastic means some Western men employed to recoup deposits lost by the "run." Among others a German brushmaker had withdrawn from his bank $500. Safe-deposit vaults being unavailable, he hid the money in his bed; but fear of robbers preyed on his mind until he found no rest on his couch nor comfort at his meals. When the banker heard of his dilemma he conceived the idea of pretending at midnight to burglarize his house. The brushmaker, trembling with fear, sat on his bed, revolver in hand, and carried his fortune back to the bank in the early morning.

Referring to the panic of 1907, Mr. Windmüller says:

In March losses of the large operators could be kept secret; ashamed of their holdings, they spoke of them in whispers only. But toward the end of 1907 it became impossible to hide their perplexity. During the short trip across the ocean by a member of that triumvirate of "schlemils" who expected to rule the market with the bank shares they acquired on installments, an inquisitive sheriff broke into his divers strong-boxes and found in them all together $100 worth of available assets. This "captain of industry" claimed the control of corporations capitalized for a hundred millions!

The spectacle of waiting depositors at the doors of the Knickerbocker and other defaulting institutions reminded him of similar scenes in bygone days.

Keen brokers watched the hoarders who were successful in drawing money and followed them to their safe-deposit vaults; they persuaded them there to part, in consideration of a premium, with their currency for checks. Some employers paid to these sharks as much as 4 per cent. premium for their payrolls. When the premium dwindled and finally disappeared some of those brokers lost more than they previously had gained. When interest rose to 100 per cent. per annum, railroads and other industrials that found difficulty before the panic to sell their notes could borrow none at all, and many of them were compelled either to discharge their employees or to reduce their hours.

A large proportion of the discharged men became anxious to return to Europe, so that it became difficult to transport them. The laborers who remained had to be satisfied with the employment capital could offer.

Toward the close of his paper Mr. Windmuller has this reassuring paragraph:

The paucity of commercial failures in the face of compulsory retrenchment has demonstrated that American merchants who confine themselves to legitimate business are worthy of confidence. Of the security which the New York Clearing-House accepted during the panic for certificates more than 70 per cent. consisted of commercial paper, which was all paid as it matured.

HOW THE DESERT "GENERATES SPIRITUAL FORCES."

THAT the desert is "not merely an abode of desolation and death, but the perpetual generating place of vital racial and spiritual forces," is the theme of a new book brought out in England, entitled "Wanderings in Arabia." Its author, Mr. C. M. Doughty, says:

All that we here experience,—the toilsome, bitter wanderings, the ceaseless feuds and forays, the nakedness of the land, the hard and frugal fare, the fierce heat, and tingling, fine air,—become, as it were, like plastic, soft fingers steadily at work restoring and renovating an old ideal. In connection with these experiences let the reader think of all that Islam and the Arab have done and failed to do in the world, and he will find that in this book he holds a clue to the character of two of the most potent influences that have ever acted upon human affairs.

In a long and appreciative review of this book, the *Saturday Review* (London) says:

The Arab race and the Moslem religion have been the twin products of the desert, and both have exerted on human affairs the same stimulating effect. Not only is the Arab the most excitable of mortals, but he has always possessed an extraordinary power of communicating his excitability to others. Half the conflicts of the world for the last 1200 years have been connected with the Arab or Saracenic influence. Syrians Indians, Kurds, Persians, the Negros of the Sudan, and the Khabili tribe of the Atlas Mountains have felt in turn that contagious example and been roused and fired by it.

THE ARAB AS "HUMANITY'S WHIP."

Quoting directly from the books, the reviewer proceeds:

Even of the original Arab conquests it has been pointed out that they were indeed not so much conquests as a revolt,—a revolt, universal and widespread, against wornout Paganism, for which the Arabs supplied the necessary leaders, and into which they infused their own daring and their own impetuosity. To the semi-enslaved victims of imperial routine the Arabs came more as deliverers than conquerors. They were the whiplash laid across humanity's bare back to sting it into action. They have played much the same part ever since. Wherever throughout the Near East and northern and central Africa there occur risings, rebellions, fights and forays, there we are certain to find the Arab at work, heaping on the fuel and poking the fire. His effect is curiously out of proportion to his numerical strength, which at the best of times must have been scanty.

The desert is the source of the Arab and Moslem influences not merely in the sense in which Palestine is the source of Christianity, or Greece the home of Hellenism.

It is not only the place of origin of forces which can be transplanted and can operate successfully elsewhere. It is more than this; it is a perpetually present inspiration and necessary condition of health and vigor of that which it originated. Nothing in history is more curious than the necessity which has always existed for the desert race and the desert religion to keep touch with the desert if they would maintain their own vitality. . . . Both France and England learned, and paid for the lesson, the difference between the Moors of cities and the Bedouins of the desert.

Does it seem strange to the reader that wastes of sand and barren rock should possess such ascendancy over a race and a faith? asks the author. It would, he continues, not seem strange to him if he had experienced the desert and the desert life.

The fierce heat, the pure, thin air that vibrates on the senses, the desolation that imposes on all who inhabit here the need of stern endurance, the prevailing lawlessness that delegates to every individual the custody of his own life and property and honor,—these causes, acting on the same race for hundreds of generations, have stamped their mark not only on character and temperament, but on ideas and ethics. They have generated men, self-reliant, indomitable, arrogant, proud, fierce, and courageous,—men endued in a high degree with those virile virtues which at a certain stage of development have satisfied all races, but which the Arab race has remained satisfied with permanently; and they have generated a creed in which these virtues and this view of life are consecrated and embodied,—a creed which, thin-thoughted as it is, and totally wanting in richness and in depth, is of all creeds that which stands by a man best in the assertion of his own individuality. . . . Thus, then, the desert acts. It maintains and renews the Arab and Moslem influences by bringing to bear upon them constantly, from day to day, the very same conditions and circumstances out of which they originally arose. Nothing changes in this stricken land, where man and man's ideals share the immobility of Nature. The life and scenery described by the poets of Mohammed's time are the life and scenery described by Doughty to-day.

KUROPATKIN'S "SECRET HISTORY" OF THE WAR WITH JAPAN.

SELDOM has the publication of a soldier's memoirs aroused such world-wide interest as has followed upon the bare announcement in Russia of the completion of General Kuropatkin's history of Russia's war with Japan as he himself saw it. The few who were permitted to see the manuscript declared it to be a remarkably free and full revelation of the political plans and purposes of Russia. Kuropatkin, Minister of War and later Commander-in-Chief of the Russian forces in the Manchurian campaign, became a target for abuse at the close of the war. He returned to St. Petersburg and constructed, from the official material accessible to him, an elaborate history of the war and a detailed statement of the condition, purposes, and development of the Russian Empire. Documents and dispatches endorsed "Strictly Confidential," matters involving the highest officials, information obviously intended for no eyes but those of the innermost government circles, are laid forth in this work.

Of course, the work was at once confiscated by the St. Petersburg government. A few copies of the manuscript were made, however, and *McClure's Magazine* announces that one of these copies came into its possession a few months ago,—"it is not essential and obviously would not be wise to state just how." Mr. George Kennan, the well-known student of Russian affairs, is now translating and arranging material from the manuscript, which contains 600,000 words, for five or six brief magazine articles. The first of these appears in *McClure's* for September.

An exceedingly interesting feature of the article is the correspondence betwen Kuropatkin and the Czar, which is given in detail. Upon the letters and reports of the general appear the comments and marginal notes of the Emperor. The war was forced against the will of the sovereign and the advice of the War Department. It was ended, Kuropatkin shows, when Russia was just beginning to discipline and dispose her great forces, because of the lack of courage and firmness in the Czar. Japan certainly would have been crushed, says Kuropatkin, if war had continued.

Mr. Kennan regards as most important and significant General Kuropatkin's narrative of the events which preceded the rupture with Japan in February, 1904, and which may be regarded historically as the causes of the war. For several generations the question of obtaining an outlet on the Pacific Ocean had been considered theoretically in Russia, but, says Mr. Kennan in his introductory note, it is evident from General Kuropatkin's first volume that



GEN. ALEXEI NIKOLAIEVICH KUROPATKIN.
(Whose history of the Japanese War has aroused a great deal of comment in Europe.)

> in view of the sparseness of Russia's population east of Lake Baikal, and the insignificance of her commerce, foreign and domestic, in that part of the world, the task of getting access to the Pacific, which might involve a serious struggle, ought not to be imposed upon the existing generation.

General Kuropatkin admits that this was the view of all the cooler and more serious statesmen, including the Emperor.

> There is a prevalent opinion that if we had confined ourselves to the construction of the main trans-Siberian road, even though we built a part of it through northern Manchuria, there would have been no war; that the war was caused by our occupation of Port Arthur and Mukden, and, more particularly, by the Bezobrazov timber enterprise in Korea.

In this enterprise (the Korean Yalu Timber Company), Kuropatkin asserts, the

Czar was interested to the extent of 2,000,000 rubles ($1,000,000), and (we are quoting Mr. Kennan) "rather than sacrifice the family investment in this enterprise the Czar allowed Russia to be dragged into a war with Japan." The trouble really began, says Kuropatkin, when, at the instigation of Bezobrazov and Admiral Alexeyev, who had been appointed Viceroy of the Far East, Russia broke her word to the rest of the world in not evacuating Manchuria. General Kuropatkin says on this point:

There is good reason to affirm that the unexpected change of policy that put a stop to the evacuation of the province of Mukden was an event of immense importance. So long as we held to our intention of withdrawing all our troops from Manchuria (except the railway guard and a small force at Harbin), and so long as we refrained from invading Korea with our enterprises, there was little danger of a break with Japan; but we were brought alarmingly nearer to a rupture with that power when, contrary to our agreement with China, we left our troops in southern Manchuria, and when, in the promotion of our timber enterprise, we entered northern Korea. The uncertainty, moreover, with regard to our intentions, alarmed not only China and Japan, but even England, America, and other powers.

Kuropatkin expresses the greatest respect and cordial feeling toward the Japanese, and displays a startlingly accurate knowledge of their military resources. He also devotes a great deal of space to the economic interests of Russia in the Far East, which at present, he declares, are comparatively insignificant.

We have as yet, thank God, no overproduction in manufactures, because even our domestic markets are not yet glutted. . . . Russia, therefore, has not yet grown up to the melancholy necessity of waging war in order to get markets for her products. As for our other interests in the Far East, the success or failure of a few coal or timber enterprises in Manchuria and Korea is not a matter of sufficient importance to make it worth while for Russia to run the risk of war on their account.

As to the power of State Councillor Bezobrazov, Mr. Kennan, summarizing several chapters in General Kuropatkin's work, says:

Bezobrazov, who seems to have been a most fluent and persuasive talker, as well as a man of fine personal presence and bearing, soon interested his grand ducal friends in the fabulous wealth of the Far East generally, and in the extraordinary value of the Korean timber concession especially. They all took stock in his enterprise, and one of them, with a view to getting the strongest possible support for it, presented him to the Czar. Bezobrazov made upon Nicholas II. an extraordinarily favorable impression, and, in the course of a few months, acquired an influence over him that nothing afterward seemed able to shake. That the Czar became financially interested in Bezobrazov's timber company is certain; and it is currently reported in St. Petersburg that the Emperor and the Empress Dowager, together, put into the enterprise several million rubles. . . . It was this known influence of Bezobrazov with the Czar that made "everybody" in the Far East "afraid of him"; that enabled him to enlist in the service of the timber company even officers of the Russian general staff; that caused Alexeyev to respond to his call for troops to garrison Feng-wang-cheng and Shakhedze, and that finally changed Russia's policy in the Far East and stopped the withdrawal of troops from southern Manchuria.

CASTRO: TYRANT OR LIBERATOR?

SELDOM does one meet with two writers on the same subject more at variance than Mr. George W. Crichfield and Mr. Colvin B. Brown, whose respective views concerning the President of Venezuela are presented, under the above caption, in *Everybody's Magazine* for September. According to the former, Castro is neither more nor less than a fiend incarnate, a veritable Frankinstein, under whose heel "hundreds of thousands of men and women of high character now lie as helpless as were the reconcentrados in Cuba in the days of 'Bloody Weyler.'" United States Minister Francis B. Loomis is cited, who as long ago as 1901 reported to the State Department at Washington that during his residence in Venezuela he had "seen a majority of the members of the Supreme Court arrested, imprisoned, and finally removed from office for intimating that they would not decide a case in the manner desired by the chief executive."

No phase of life is free from surveillance. All telegrams and cablegrams are censored, with a representative of the dictator in charge of every line of communication. All letters are liable to be opened by government officials. . . . Even diplomatic correspondence is tampered with and every foreign minister knows that he must send his communications to his government in his own mail-pouch, carried by his own private messenger to a mail-ship, or they will be placed before the dictator for his perusal.

Mr. Crichfield asserts that there is to-day scarcely a vestige of American interest in the

whole country. There are not more than twenty-five Americans in Venezuela; "and in any part except the capital and one or two coast towns an American would be regarded as a curiosity, especially if he were out of jail." Castro is a millionaire, the result of flagrant unscrupulousness; and Mr. Crichfield claims to have in his possession "definite data concerning the spoliation of hundreds of foreign citizens and companies by Castro and his creatures, the amount of such confiscations and seizures running into tens of millions of dollars." The same writer holds that the United States stands between Castro and punishment. Answering the question, Why does not the great mass of the Venezuelan people rise and throw off the yoke? he says that Venezuela is composed of two groups: one the army with Castro's political adherents in civil life, and the other, the greater part of the population, who at the present time are passive under the despotism. "The foreigners and the respectable citizens can't save themselves; the United States won't save them, yet warns the rest of the world to keep hands off."

Mr. Brown, who also lived for a long time in Venezuela, and has made a careful study of its affairs, comes to the defense of President Castro. It is no easy task, he says, that the President of Venezuela is called upon to perform, inasmuch as "the rules laid down by governments in other countries cannot be altogether applied here." Possessing an unusually fertile land containing millions of acres of ungrazed pasture and unexplored forest, and valuable mines only needing development, the people "are endowed with none of the adventurous spirit of the pioneer. They are content with the living that comes with little effort." Naturally a country so rich, inhabited by a people so unenterprising, is a tempting prey for the adventurous of other lands. Mr. Brown cites one or two instances:

> Close to the northern coast line of Venezuela are two islands, Trinidad and Curaçao. . . . Port of Spain, in Trinidad, and Willemstad, in Curaçao, are practically free ports. Every week more cargoes are unloaded at these ports than would be consumed by the inhabitants of the two islands in a year. What becomes of it all? What means this great import of goods so vastly in excess of any possible local demand? Every one there knows the answer. The busy little fleets one sees loading goods at these ports are smugglers. Venezuela has had no money to build and maintain a fleet of sufficient size to patrol her 2000 miles of coast line. As a result, she loses fully one-half of her duties on imports.



GEN. CIPRIANO CASTRO, PRESIDENT OF VENEZUELA, IN HIS STUDY.

Another case was that in which some German capitalists were granted a concession for the construction of a railroad from Caracas to Valencia.

> Venezuela very much wanted this road built, and guaranteed 6 per cent. on the cost. The cost was so great that it is doubtful if the road would pay if built through the heart of Pennsylvania. The Germans declare that a bargain is a bargain, and demand of the Venezuelans that they live up to their contract and pay interest as agreed, no matter how great the hardship. The Venezuelans claim that the cost of the road was enormously in excess of what it should have been, and that this cost was purposely increased in order to get the 6 per cent. which the German considers a very good rental for his money.

From experiences of this kind the Venezuelan has formed the conclusion that the foreigner is a spoilsman, who has no respect for the laws of the country, and who will "stop at nothing to gain his ends, even at fomenting and aiding revolution."

The most serious check to progress in Venezuela has been its series of revolutions, of which there have been seventy-six in seventy years. As a consequence, the death rate has been enormous, and the population shows a decrease. There can be no real prosperity until peace is permanently established, and the one great need has been a ruler who could assure this permanency. "The ethics, culture, ancestry of the man are of little moment." Speaking of the present president, Mr. Brown says:

> Cipriano Castro is the first mountaineer Presi-

dent the Venezuelans have ever had, and it is natural that he would be misunderstood at Caracas. His father was an Indian, and the father's characteristics have been impressed upon the son, most noticeably in the straight black hair and the swarthy skin. . . . He rides a horse like a Western cowboy. He is forceful, aggressive, quick to anger, and of unquestioned courage. . . . The President of Venezuela has always been supreme ruler, and Castro is no exception. He realizes that the prosperity of his country depends on peace as the first very and important requisite, and when the Matos rebellion broke out he threw himself into the fight like a demon, destroying the rebellion root and branch. Since then there have been no revolutions, for political agitators and would-be presidents have learned to fear the man.

Castro's firmness of character is indicated in a recent incident. When he was lying sick almost unto death, word was brought to him that General Paredo had landed with the intention of starting a revolution. Castro gave orders to General Zapato to proceed at once to the capture of the rebel and his followers. A few days later Doctor Ravenga, secretary general, walked into Castro's bedchamber and reported that Paredo and sixteen officers, two of whom were Americans, had been apprehended. Without turning his head upon the pillow the sick man gave the order to have the prisoners shot.

We do not find in Mr. Brown's article any allusion to the case of the United States and Venezuela Company, which a writer in the *North American Review*, as noticed in our May number, characterizes as "a clear case of spoliation by Venezuela without justification or excuse"; but in the equally well-known case of the New York & Bermudez Asphalt Company, in which Castro obtained judgment for damages in the Venezuela courts in the sum of $5,000,000, the President, according to Mr. Brown, does not consider this fine excessive in view of the fact that this company was convicted of financing a revolution that cost many lives and large sums of money, and was directed against a government from which the company was enjoying valuable special privileges. The fine has not been paid, but when it is the asphalt company can enter into and take possession of its property.

The company hopes that the United States will interfere and make the Venezuelan Government restore the property. In Mr. Brown's judgment, war with Venezuela would not result in such a quick and easy victory as some people think.

War with the United States would probably mean a coalition with Venezuela of several of her sister republics; for there is a general feeling that the United States has designs . . . upon these republics.

The same writer considers that:

Cipriano Castro has been a much-maligned man. It is his ambition to rule his country well, according to his lights, to keep it free from internal turmoil, to open it up to foreign investors when it is thoroughly pacified, and to pass it on to a strong successor when the time comes. . . . The greatest harm that could come to Venezuela would be a revolution that would overthrow Castro before his work is finished. This opinion is shared by leading citizens of Venezuela, who believe that this half-breed Indian cares more for the welfare of his country than he does for worldly pelf, and that if he is allowed to carry out his ideas Venezuela will become the first power in Spanish America, with a chance of rivaling the Argentine.

It is well, perhaps, to have this Venezuelan view of the dictator presented, since only thus would outsiders be able to understand the national attitude.

ROME'S JEWISH MAYOR.

IN no European capital have the Jews experienced more remarkable vicissitudes than in the Eternal City. More than 2000 years have elapsed since they first entered Rome; and, ever since, their history has been a series of ups and downs, of persecutions by popes and populace alike, and of restoration to a semblance of citizenship. Herded for centuries in a miserable ghetto, patronized by one pontiff and hounded by another, stripped of their property, burned at the stake, and forbidden to inscribe any epitaphs on the tombs of their dead,—surviving all the hatred, ignominy, and persecution to which the Christian Church had subjected them, they at length, under Victor Immanuel, obtained full emancipation; and to-day, *mirabile dictu!* the twelve or thirteen thousand Jews of Rome have the gratification of seeing one of their number, Ernesto Nathan, in the mayoral chair.

Mr. Nathan, according to the *Outlook* for August 22, was born in London, and comes of a family which, in England, extended hospitality to the patriot Mazzini when he was exiled from the land of his birth. He is "the son of a patriot, who lived long at London and at Lugano, a worker for the Risorgimento," and, in due time, he himself became an Italian citizen. The *Outlook* writer gives

the following description of the Mayor's personality:

When you go to see Signor Nathan at his office on the Capitoline Hill or at his house, 122 Via Torino, in the new part of Rome, just off the Via Nazionale, your first impression is that of a man who never ceases increasing in height as he rises to greet you, he is so tall and spare. He looks at you out of eyes which seem to speak of his experience with Italy's past. . . . He is now an authority on the period of the Risorgimento, the name which the Italians apply to that wonderful and final struggle for political liberty and national unity which, definitely assuming shape as far back as 1815, experienced in 1848, in 1859-61, and again in 1870, three distinct crises which resulted in a new-born Italy. Many have written authoritatively of these crises . . . but, as one talks with Signor Nathan, one becomes convinced that *the* book is yet to be written.

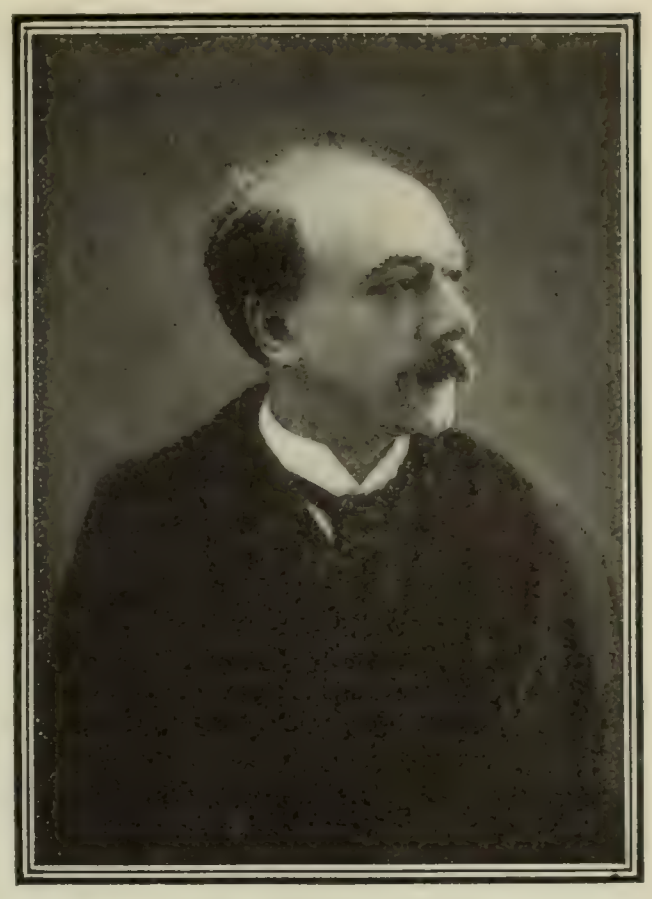
The Mayor of Rome is elected not by the popular vote, but through the Council, "which is a body of eighty representative men chosen on a general ticket and containing at least twenty who represent the minority." It was around Signor Nathan's personality that the battle at the polls largely waged; and the election, "bitterly fought, resulted in an emphatic defeat of the church party, which has ruled in Rome for uncounted generations."

Though Signor Nathan is the first Jew to be made Mayor of Rome, he is not the only Jew who has attained official prominence in Italy,—as examples may be cited Leone Wollemberg and Luigi Luzzati, Finance Ministers, and Giuseppe Ottolenghi, Minister of War. But Signor Nathan's election is rendered additionally significant by the fact that, besides being an Israelite, he has been Grand Master of the Free Masons, and is still an influential member of that body.

In electing one who was both Jew and Free Mason, the anti-clerical majority has impressively indicated to the Vatican the new situation created by the defeat of the old conservative majority in Rome.

When Ernesto Nathan came to Italy "he formed an intimate friendship with one who has honored his country by becoming its Finance Minister and later its Prime Minister, Baron Sonnino." The two started a newspaper, "one of the most influential and intellectual organs of public opinion which Italy has ever seen." It was, however, far too radical to please most people.

As indicating Signor Nathan's political views, the article under notice cites the fact that while no less than thirty-six of the eighty



SIGNOR ERNESTO NATHAN.
(The Hebrew Mayor of Rome.)

members of the present Municipal Council of Rome have belonged to anti-dynastic parties, they and the new Mayor realize that Italy is not yet ripe for a republic, and that in any event the King is the best Republican of them all. Only the other day Victor Emmanuel III. said to a gentleman who was calling upon him: "I am going to educate my son so that, when Italy declares herself a republic, he will be favorably regarded as a candidate for Parliament." "But," said the gentleman, "what if Italy should declare herself so in your time?" "Then I would present myself for Parliament," laughed the King. "I want Italy to feel that the name counts for little, the service for much."

It must not be supposed that the mayoralty of Rome is simply a municipal dignity; on the contrary, the chief magistrate's influence extends throughout Italy. And Signor Nathan may be confidently expected to wield this influence wisely.

The new Mayor of Rome, faithful to his past, will bring into the administration of the Eternal City those qualites which would distinguish him in any position,—a republican simplicity and an acuteness of intelligence which give no indication of the *dolce far niente*,—that happy do-nothingism which is mistakenly supposed to characterize the habits of all Italians. . . . The fact is that Ernesto Nathan, the son of a patriot, is himself a great patriot, and his tenure of office as Mayor of Rome already gives evidence of his power.

THE MAKING OF MODERN ROME.

ON June 18, last year, Italy's Prime Minister, Signor Giolitti, said in the Chamber of Deputies: "There are ten or twelve landholders, not more, who have possession of nine-tenths of Rome's building area." And the Deputy Ferraris, in a recent number of the *Nuova Antologia,* refers to the "land and house trust" which had helped to create an intolerable situation, leading to parliamentary action.

Briefly, a serious housing problem had arisen, affecting especially the large army of civil officials,—national and municipal,—obliged to reside at the Italian metropolis, through two untoward factors: the constant raising of rents by grasping houseowners, and the impossibility of any one's buying unoccupied real estate to erect more dwellings upon. Vacant land there was, and is, in plenty, but the owners demanded a fanciful price whenever an intending builder of dwelling-houses presented himself, or they refused to sell at all, so that the market was practically closed. Meanwhile, the demand, even the necessity, persisted of stable and moderate rentals for the state and city employees,—with their families numbering 50,000,—who had to depend wholly on their small, fixed salaries. These, in the local opinion, seemed to be the principal victims, although the paucity of lodgings at reasonable rentals also proved a hardship to many among the non-official middle class.

This momentous question was taken in hand,—with other problems concerning the improvement of Rome,—by the nation's Parliament, and laws have been passed which are expected to have salutary results.

Every owner of land which is situated within certain limits will be obliged, by virtue of said legislation, to declare his price . . . at which figure the municipality will have the right to expropriate such land. By the same legislation the city of Rome is authorized to borrow up to fifteen million *lire* from the National Loan and Deposit Fund for the purpose of expropriating and purchasing real estate to be made into municipal building areas. The city thus becomes a buyer and a seller of real estate, which it will dispose of to persons intending to build.

And in return the city has devoted the whole space of the Piazza d' Armi to the creation of a new dwelling section,—principally for the benefit of the official employees mentioned above,—where, too, governmental administrative buildings may be erected. For the occupancy of these new houses, which are to be modern in every sense of the word, the prospective tenants will draw lots, and the rents will be about half as high as those now prevailing.

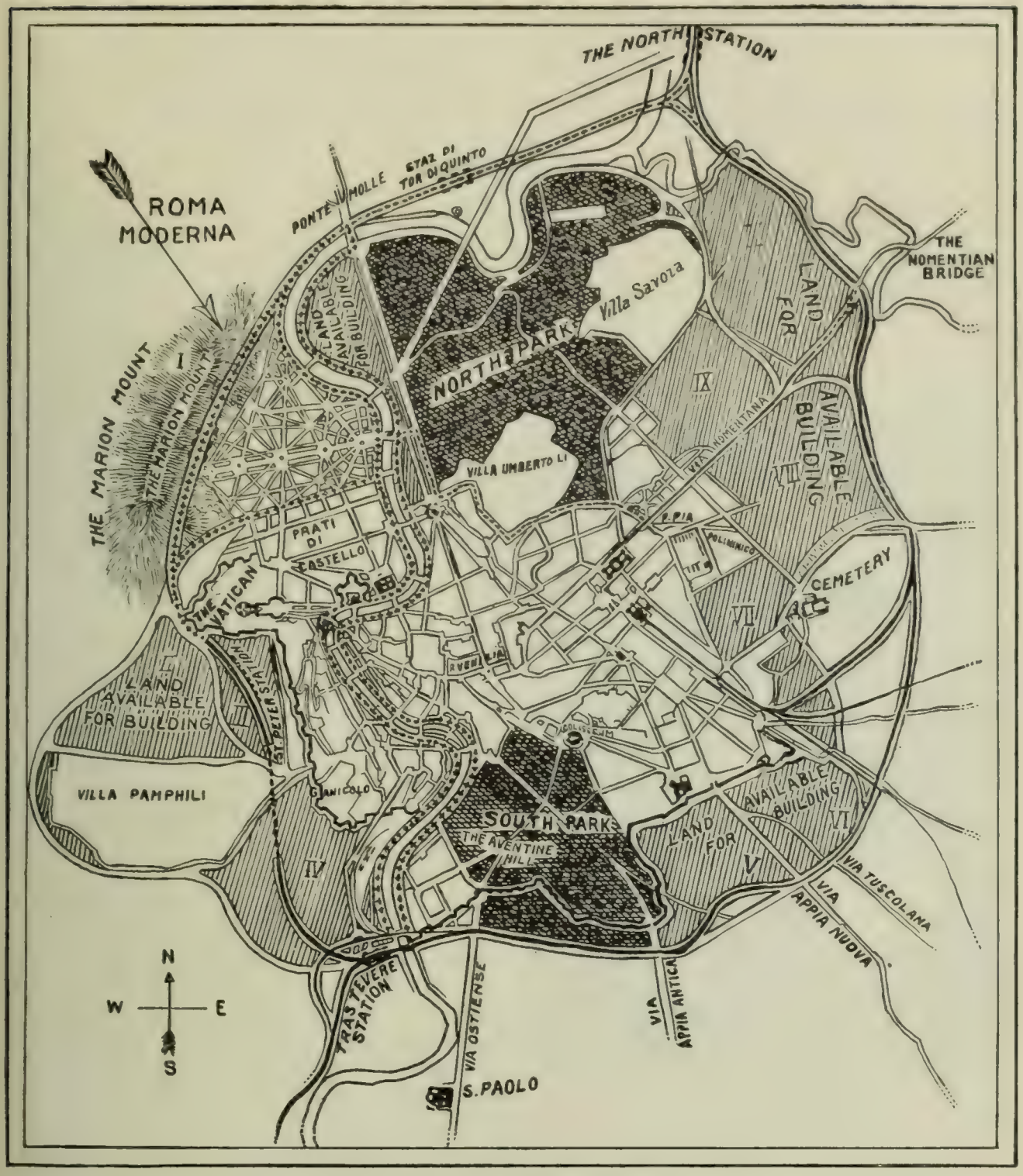
But the house problem is not the only one that has been confronting the progressive spirits of Rome, some of whose aspirations find another channel of utterance in the *Rivista d' Italia.* Signor Mariani there declares openly and roundly for a thoroughly modernized, "up-to-date" Rome. He would wish to see the Italian capital his country's commercial and industrial center. With radical improvements in view, he, of course, dwells on two points that have already been expounded in this REVIEW: the need of drainage and sanitation for the arid, malarial tracts adjacent to the city, and the establishment of Rose as a port by means of a canal to the Tyrrhenian Sea (seven miles distant). He thinks the Campagna could be reclaimed, remarking that in ancient days, preceding the Roman Empire, "those very Pontine marshes boasted a flourishing agriculture."

Homeric traditions praised the opulence of the district, and according to the elder Pliny twenty-three cities sprang up and prospered in the dominion of the Volscians. However, Signor Mariani does not pin his faith to the agricultural development of Rome's surrounding country as the chief means of Rome's aggrandizement.

No one is ignorant of the existence of the cascades of Tivoli (eighteen miles from the capital), where the deep and turbulent Aniene (or Anio) falls 186 meters in the short distance of two kilometers (about one foot in ten, but not regularly). The basin of this river is so rich in springs that it could quench the thirst of a city tenfold more populous than Rome, which from olden times has been a city of fountains. But the day has now come when the abounding streams of Latium (the county containing Rome) ought to be utilized principally for the benefit of industries. Forty thousand horse-power could easily be drawn from the cascades. The lighting system, the tramways, and several workshops of Rome and Tivoli now derive energy from the Aniene, whose power is merely tapt thereby.

Besides the Aniene, there are the smaller but plentiful Liri and Fibreno, which might supply energy for industrial purposes, while, in general, the grand possibilities of motive power to be gained by drawing upon the Umbrian and Abruzzan watersheds (to the north and east of Rome) have scarcely been estimated at all.

Communications within the capital have been considerably augmented of late years, and the new circular city railway is nearing completion. The fortunate idea of the new



SKETCH-PLAN OF MODERN ROME.

(The lightly shaded parts, marked "Land Available for Building," represent building areas available under the new laws; and the dotted line running northeast,—from the Vatican past the Marian Mount to the station at the top of the sketch,—indicates the section of the circular city railway, about twenty miles long in all, to be completed during the current year.)

and direct Rome-to-Naples line gives great satisfaction to Signor Mariani, who, insisting upon a liberal policy of communication with all the chief cities of Italy, concludes his article in the following terms:

To unite the capital to the metropolis of the south by this important short line is by no means sufficient. . . . As I approve of the building of the Rome-Naples line to-day, before the industrial development of Latium has taken place, so do I regard the construction of a new, straight line from Rome to Milan, our northern metropolis, as entirely opportune, without awaiting this development. I say without waiting for it, because if it is the business of railroads to supply the demands of traffic, it is also their office to create and increase traffic. . . . The great line from Rome to Milan must be the shortest

and straightest possible, without consideration of Florence or Bologna. Let the other cities have branches to the direct line, which itself, however, must take absolutely the quickest route. The trains must fly their course without stopping at a single intermediate station, no, not even at one, say I. This is done in the United States and England, two countries where time is money. If the Bolognans and the Florentines complain, they will set the example of a petty local spirit incapable of lifting itself up to the transfigurement of a love embracing all Italy!

A WOMAN'S CONQUEST OF THE ANDES.

THE past summer has been a notable one for the triumphs of American muscle and endurance. The results of the Olympic Games at London proved conclusively that



MISS ANNIE S. PECK.
(The American woman who has made a record in mountain-climbing.)

in practically every branch of athletics American men have no superiors in the world. And now it appears that American women also can claim their meed of praise,—and no small one,—for early in September one of their number, Miss Annie S. Peck, climbed to the summit of Mount Huascan (or Huascaran), one of the hitherto unconquered peaks of the Andes. Some idea of the magnitude of this achievement may be gained from the varying estimates of the height of this mountain, which range from 26,000 to 22,080 feet, and from the fact that Raimondi, the geographer, failed in his attempt to attain the summit, and that Enock also gave up the task when more than 6000 feet from the goal.

In *Harper's Weekly* for August 8 Miss Peck herself gives an account of some of her previous doings in the Andes, including the ascent of a mountain considerably higher than Mont Blanc. Miss Peck's experience in mountaineering is so wide that she writes of glaciers and crevasses, of snow-fields and mountain storms, with the familiarity of one who might be describing a trip through the Subway or the Elevated railway of her own city. What one admires, even more than the modesty of the climber's recital, is the wonderful pluck of the intrepid lady, to which her narrative unwittingly bears testimony.

The ascent described was made from a plateau near Smelter, a few miles from Cerro de Pasco, a mining town on the great plain between the East and West Cordilleras, with an altitude of over 14,000 feet. Returning from Cerro to Smelter one day, Miss Peck's mule bolted and threw his rider. The surgeon who was summoned from the Cerro mining company found "several ribs fractured, a deep gash on the forehead, and severe bruises on the left arm;" yet within a week the lady "rode five miles on a gentle horse," and a few days later set out, in company with two young men, on "an expedition to the mountains eighty miles distant." The first day's journey was cut short by a violent thunderstorm, but at eight the next morning the party was "off and away," and the following day was approaching the Raura range, "the glaciers on which are the source of the mighty Amazon." Now the mountaineers had their first trial of two alcohol stoves that they had brought from the Smelter laboratory, which worked well and gave an "excellent supper of fried bacon, beans, and cocoa." The next morning but one they reached a spot suitable for entering the glacier.

This we do after putting on as many climbing irons as would fit. Pat's boots having no nails were first provided. Ned's boots had a meager supply, and he wore the only remaining iron that would serve. Carelessly dropping one of

my irons under the edge of the glacier, I went without any, while Julian, the cholo, did very well in my new rubber boots. We find the snow in excellent condition, hard but not slippery. Our way was now so steep that we were obliged to zigzag upward and occasionally halt for breath. We had just gone to the left to avoid a big crevasse, then taken a turn to the right to escape a particularly steep ledge with a small crevasse, and were now just above the latter, when I was startled to find myself slipping. The snow on the glacier in the heat of the day (it was twelve o'clock) had become soft enough to give way beneath my feet. Immediately I struck hard into the ice with the head of my ice axe, which held. The man whom I had wisely placed second was holding the rope taut, so I slipped only a foot or two. Having carefully regained my feet, I looked up and down.

Miss Peck concluded that the wisest course was to descend, and the return was made without accident. The altitude attained had been about 15,500 feet; and from this height Miss Peck estimated that the highest mountain in this part of the Cordilleras was about 21,000 feet.

As the other snow mountains near presented the same difficulties as the one that had been attempted, Miss Peck determined to ascend one of "the lesser heights, which might be reached by an exclusively rock climb." Discarding the rope with which her companions, at her suggestion, had tied themselves together, Miss Peck went on ahead, feeling sure that she could reach the summit. And reach it she did. This is her description of the ascent:

> Now my progress was rapid. I kept entirely on the rocks, getting farther away from the glacier, till at length I reached a platform thirty feet square at the top of a vertical face of the mountain and thirty feet below what I hoped would prove the real summit. But here was a perpendicular wall. Could I climb it? I at once observed that, though the rock was smooth, a ledge about as high as my head, nearly a foot wide, led along upward to the right; then convenient steps conducted to another platform ten feet below the summit. The tug would be to get to the first ledge. I have too little muscle to draw myself up with my hands, and there wasn't the slightest foothold; but luckily a big rock, breast-high, stood close to the wall. Eagerly placing my foot in the crack, about the height of my knee, I found it narrow enough to hold. I was able with some effort to get my body up on the rock and then to stand upright. From here the climb was easy, and in a moment I rejoiced to find myself on the real summit, the glacier ending on the other side about twenty feet below. Triumph at last! It wasn't the loftiest peak in South America, but it was the first ascent of a mountain a good deal higher than Mont Blanc, and I had done it alone.

Soon after, Miss Peck's two companions reached the summit; and, though she had begun the descent, she retraced her steps, boiled her thermometer (indicating an altitude of 16,500 feet), and had her photograph taken.

THE RENASCENCE OF TURKEY.

HOW could a country like Turkey change in a day from absolutism to a constitutional monarchy without shedding a drop of blood? Who are the leaders who have effected this change and what is the change? What really is the constitution of which we hear so much?

Even Turkey has had its heroes of freedom, and the greatest and noblest of these was the author of the constitution which the Sultan was forced to pledge himself to execute in the last week of July. This constitution, according to the correspondent of the London *Morning Post,* one of the best-informed newspaper men in Constantinople, was the Midhat constitution. It was for this constitution that Midhat Pasha, Abdul Hamid's first Grand Vizier, was banished from Turkey. And finally Midhat was a martyr to his constitution, having been put to death in the fortress of Taif by the Sultan's order on May 12, 1883.

This old, musty document of more than thirty years of age was, with its author, the embodiment of the spirit of the "Young Turks" and the Committee of "Union and Progress." Midhat in his struggle for the promulgation of his constitution and the welfare of Turkey made and unmade Sultans. First he deposed the Sultan Abdul Aziz, whose degradation of Turkey has been surpassed only by that of Abdul Hamid. He placed on the throne Murad V., Abdul Hamid's elder brother. Murad was insane, and Midhat put Abdul Hamid in his place, pledged to promulgate the constitution and with the understanding that if Murad recovered his mind he should recover his throne. But Abdul Hamid kept Murad off the throne, buried Midhat's constitution, and destroyed its author.

Around Murad V. as long as he lived, and ever since around Abdul Hamid's younger brother Reschad for Sultan, have rallied the heirs and party of Midhat, which are the Young Turks. The recent triumph was



SULTAN ABDUL HAMID II. OF TURKEY, WHO HAS GRANTED HIS PEOPLE A CONSTITUTION.

(From a snapshot taken a few days after the constitution had been promulgated.)

therefore that of the followers of Midhat, though in Turkey any one these last thirty years who acknowledged that he was a partisan or friend of Midhat was either banished or imprisoned or assassinated, for no man did the Sultan hate and fear so much as he did Midhat Pasha. But the founder of the Turkish constitution, we are told in the Ottoman journals, was revered and honored by every honest, patriotic Turk.

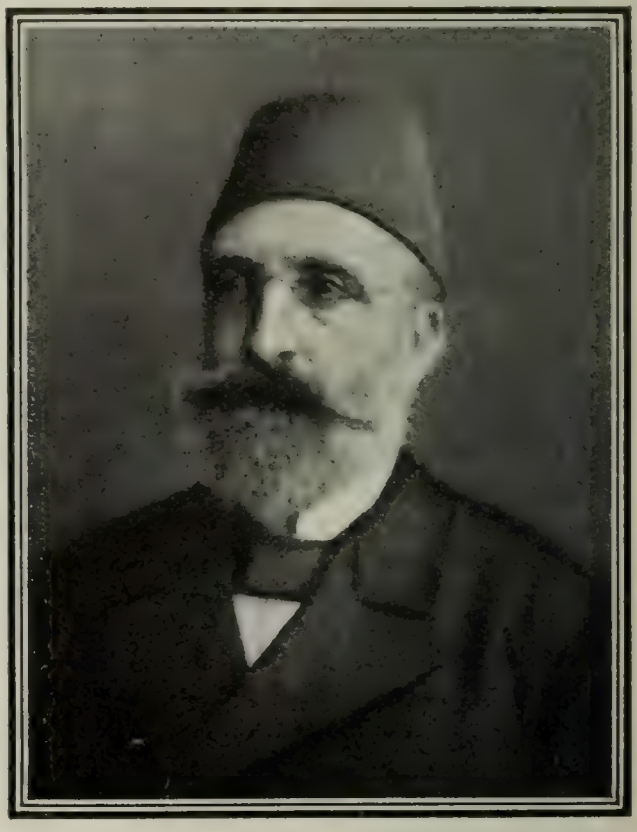
Thirty-two years ago, when Abdul Hamid came to the throne, Midhat was the idol of the Young Turks, and especially the softas, or university students. Almost every Turk who was banished for any cause to the great cities of Europe at once became an adherent of the cause of Midhat, and within the last ten years there has grown up a chain of committees reaching from London to Salonika. In some places it was the Committee of Union and Progress, and in other places it was the Young Turks, but the two parties always affiliated. One of the most important of these committees of Young Turks is that of Union and Progress in Paris, at the head of which is the young Prince Sabaheddin, a near relative of the Sultan. The work of the committee has been in two directions,—to publish literature advocating the cause of freedom in Turkey and to harmonize Christian and Mohammedan in the empire.

Rejoicing in Egypt.

The journals of Turkey are naturally jubilant. *El Lewa,* of Cairo, Egypt, one of the most important and influential of the Pan-Islamic journals, says in its leading editorial for August 7:

When the constitution was proclaimed in the Ottoman Empire, the birthplace of warriors and heroes, there flashed out of the darkness a light, a new divine assistance, which guarantees the peace and safety of the race and which restores to the Ottoman Empire its power and glory. We congratulate those who at the risk of their homes and lives struggled in silence and secrecy for freedom and independence because of their faith in eternal justice. At last they have dispelled the thick mist that has so long surrounded them, overcome all opposition and removed every obstacle from their path. But even more do we congratulate those heroes who were exiled and who lived away from their fatherland in a condition of misery at times so pathetic that it would have melted a stone, they who have tasted the bitterness of hunger and fear and were encompassed by spies and dogged by the hounds of a ruthless government, and they who were herded together in prisons subjected to nameless tortures, yet their hearts were not filled with terror nor their cries for freedom silenced. We congratulate individually and collectively all the heroes and patriots of Ottoman freedom, for they have given the civilized world a lesson in prowess and progress and taught it how to place the principles of human equality above all quarrels of race, creed, and color.

The press at Constantinople notes that an effort is now being made by friends of the late Midhat Pasha to erect a statue of him in front of the Parliament building that the Sultan now proposes to build.



MIDHAT PASHA, "THE THOMAS JEFFERSON OF TURKEY."



ENVER BEY, THE TURKISH GENERAL IN SALONIKA, WHO BEGAN THE REVOLUTION, WITH TWO OF HIS LIEUTENANTS.

Some English Opinions.

The reviews of Europe contain many critical articles on the Turkish situation. In the *Contemporary* Dr. E. J. Dillon asserts positively that Turkish absolutism is dead,—"dead as a doornail, despite the prophets who foretell its speedy resurrection." He also compliments the revolutionists on their moderation, and observes: "If the Russian Constitutional Democrats had dealt with their sovereign in the spirit of generosity displayed by the Young Turks toward Abdul Hamid they would most probably not be more grumbling and discontented as the negligable Opposition in the popular chamber."

In the same issue of the *Contemporary* Mr. E. Pears, who has but recently returned from a long stay in Turkey, pays a tribute to the priests for the part they played in the movement. He says:

The mollah caste, with the Sheik-ul-Islam at their head, have played as important a part as the army. Without their consent the committee and army would have been powerless. They have supplied the religious sentiment which was necessary to justify the army in acting for reform. The approval of all Europe has been gained by the astonishing moderation of the untried body of men, men absolutely without experience in government, who form the Committee of Union and Progress.

A Frenchman on the "Reform."

During recent years the system of espionage, so rigorously and so extensively employed by the Sultan, caused numbers of Turks and Armenians to flee the country. As most of the better class speak French, it was to Paris that they gravitated. From a number of articles in the French journals on the revolution we select for notice one by the eminent Academician, M. Gabriel Hanotaux, in the *Revue Hebdomadaire*. M. Hanotaux points out that there are in Turkey two systems of reform: one "Christian" and the other "Turkish." The former proposes as the panacea for all existing evils local autonomy and religious "particularism." The lat-

ter has for its objective the salvation of the empire by a general transformation in the government and in the conduct of affairs. The "Christian" method seeks liberty by dissociation; the "Turkish," by organization. The former seeks the support of the foreigner; the latter is nationalistic. "It is a new act of the nationalist reform which is performed before our eyes to-day."

The student of Turkish history will remember that the famous Sultan Mahmoud was a reformer, Nationalist, and *alla turca*. His massacre of the janizaries had for its object the correction of certain vices and disorders inherent in the former system; it was a process of governmental amelioration,—Young Turkey *à sa manière*. In destroying a barbarous militia,—a survival of the past,—he evinced his faith in the idea that only by Europeanizing itself could the empire assure its future. The "Turkish" reform from the beginning assumed a centralist and a military character: it sought to augment, not to diminish, the strength of the empire.

M. Hanotaux describes the "Turkish" reform as "a tonic against the 'Christian' reform," concerning which he has this to say:

> Turkey is the work of conquest. Its governmental empiricism has been merely the prolonged domination of the conqueror over autochthonous peoples having neither the same blood nor the same beliefs. . . . These peoples, though vanquished, were never amalgamated in the mass. Thus there were several nations within the nation; several states within the state. A separate existence having been legally conferred upon them by Sultan Mohammed II., their only thought has been to prolong this existence, and to obtain the support of the Christian powers, until in the course of time there should come about the realization of their unique dream,—deliverance.

As regards the Ottoman Empire itself, the "Christian" reform is neither more nor less than "death by dislocation and dissolution." On the other hand, the Young Turk says to the Christian powers: "You desire reforms in certain provinces of the empire; we propose reforms for the empire as a whole. We proclaim the equality of Christians and Mussulmans; what more would you ask?"

A Voice from the Turkish Woman.

One characteristic of the revolution is the rapidity with which all classes have entered into it. Even the women are "enthused" over the new conditions. In a recent issue of the *Outlook* (New York) are printed some extracts from the letters of a Turkish woman, in which the following passages occur:

> Hurrah! The sublime morning of the so-longed-for sacred day! The news that makes us all put our foreheads to the ground, that makes our aged, our women, our children, weep with an unknown joy. . . . There is no longer special privilege for king, for city, or religion. All are one and equal. . . . When I think of the days when we had no security, when any man, by throwing a European paper into our house, might have had us tortured, and sent to prison . . . this seems all like a dream.

A Turkish Diplomat on the Results.

Mundji Bey, Turkish Consul-General at New York, writing in the September number of the *North American Review*, while paying a deserved tribute to the discipline, organization, and courage of the Young Turks and Albanians in achieving Ottoman independence, remarks that the Armenians will always be credited with the prudence and the diplomacy of the step they took. The real cause of the final outbreak, he maintains, lay in the Macedonian question.

> That unhappy spot of European Turkey had become a guerilla camp of various races,—Bulgarians, Greeks, Servians, Wallachians, and Albanians. Each race had its national prejudice against the others, and each its national ambition. . . . All wanted to rule, and to separate the province from Turkey.
>
> The Committee of Ottoman Union and Progress, as the revolutionary committees are named, directed the revolutionary committee in Macedonia to sound the bugle of revolt. . . . The insurgent army at Uskub, Monastir, Salonika, Adrianople, all at the same time, demanded of the Sultan the re-establishment of the old constitution and the banishment of the obnoxious camarilla at Yildiz,—the real instigators of the country's misfortune and misrule. The Sultan had in all circumstances depended upon Albanian support in time of trouble, and the news of the revolt fell upon the Yildiz Kiosk like a thunderbolt.

As to the results that will accrue to his country from the new régime, Mundji Bey claims that the Ottoman Empire, comprising as it does Mohammedan and Christian races, has within itself the ability to civilize the country and to bring it "to the high level of Western nations." The new Turkey "will settle down to rebuild the ruins of the old days," and "will study science, history, economics, and all the modern resources of civilization." Industries, agriculture, etc., hitherto "sold to foreigners by corrupt officials, will pass into native hands." But the greatest change of all will be "the abolition of the religious question."

"KATE," OF OKLAHOMA.

OKLAHOMA is making history for itself, perhaps in some respects for the nation. Some enthusiasts go so far as to say that it is the new birthplace of democracy. Already some of its ideas are spreading to the border States. But the one who sits on the throne of influence and power at this history-making time is a woman, and everybody calls her "Kate." The full name of this young lady is Kate Barnard, and the story of her acquisition of her familiar title, as told by Mr. A. J. McKelway in the *American Magazine*, reads like a romance.



MISS KATE BARNARD.
(Oklahoma's Commissioner of Charities.)

Miss Barnard, it appears, was born in Nebraska, of Southern parentage.

The mother died at the daughter's birth, and the little girl's life was one of hardship and poverty. At first cared for by relatives, she was later put on the 160 acres of Oklahoma land which her father had claimed, to hold the homestead while he made a living in the city near by. The burden of loneliness and responsibility which her young heart bore, instead of embittering her life, has given her the warmest sympathy for the unfortunate, especially for the children of the poor. A devout Catholic, she frequently brought to her father-confessors the ambition she had of wider service, but was as often met with the old-fashioned advice, generally the best that can be given, that her place was that of housekeeper in her father's home.

The young lady herself thought otherwise, and when Oklahoma decided to send an exhibit to the St. Louis Exposition she "made an application to be put in charge of it, and was given the appointment over 350 competitors." As the result of her success at St. Louis she received offers of similar work at the Portland Exposition. Why she declined these offers is thus related:

She received the sage advice from a newspaper man, who had some knowledge of the world, that there was room for an unexampled career of usefulness in Oklahoma City and Territory. He advised her to gather some of her girl friends as the nucleus of a charity organization, and find first some employment for the hundreds of stranded people who had found their way to the newly opened lands and newly built cities of Oklahoma. She took this advice and, after making some investigations into the condition of the unemployed, she wrote one vivid statement for the newspapers that brought to her doors in one day 10,000 garments and stacks of furniture. She found 400 children, many of them living in tents, all of them destitute, and she clothed them, and shod them, and bought books for them, and packed them off to school.

So deeply were the citizens impressed by her efforts that two associations, of business men and ministers respectively, which had been doing desultory charity work, combined their operations, elected Miss Barnard matron, and provided an income of $600 a month for her disbursement. It was while matron of this association that she became "the controlling spirit in the political life of Oklahoma. She was able to vote the slum independently of or against the saloon."

"Hello, boys! Where are you going?" she would say to a group of barroom bums, towed to the polls by a saloon-keeper. And while the saloon-keeper looked helplessly on, she would remind them that she had sent John's little girl to school, and had nursed Tom's wife through pneumonia, and had found a decent suit of clothes for Jim. . . . And then she would tell the boys that they must vote against the bad candidate for Mayor, and for the good one, because the good one was a friend of hers, and the boys would follow her meekly to the ballot-box.

In this way she elected a Republican and then a Democratic Mayor, by a majority of 700 on each occasion.

She made her first public speech at a labor convention, urging a plea for the insertion of a compulsory-education and an anti-child-labor section in the new constitution, and the convention included these demands. When a State department of charities was established Kate was made the first commissioner,

with a salary of $2500. So effective a public speaker did she become that "it became a common trick for campaigners to promise that Kate would also deliver an address, and it often happened that she was billed to speak at the same time at towns 300 miles apart." When the Republican ticket was snowed under in the election Kate received a majority of 56,000 votes. She was the chief reason for the Democratic victory, being thoroughly trusted by the farmers and the labor-union men. She was also the favorite speaker for the Democrats.

> Lithe, graceful, petite, with dark hair and skin and flashing eyes, and a rapid-fire articulation that was the despair of the reporters, she painted pictures of the wrongs of childhood, of the sufferings of miners without the protection of law, of the needs of orphans, of the iniquity of sending juvenile criminals to the jails and stockades, thrilling her vast audiences with her earnest eloquence.

When Oklahoma was made a State, Kate was inaugurated along with the other State officers, and given offices in the Senate Building; and "the spirit of the new State is incarnate" in her:

> The politicians come and go through the State offices, and call on the Governor and the Lieutenant-Governor, and the Speaker. But they make a mistake when they do not stop to shake hands with Kate, if they want something done that is worth while. And through her little office on the top floor there pours a steady stream of people all day long, people whom she has met in her campaigns over the State, or people who want to meet her,—farmers, merchants, clubwomen, preachers, teachers. Now a delegation of miners . . . now a committee of laundry-girls. . . . She knows the game and plays it well, and it is for humanity that she is playing it.

So to-day, as Mr. McKelway graphically puts it, "if the stranger from the East asks a citizen of Guthrie where Miss Barnard's office is, a puzzled expression will first appear, then the difficulty will be removed as he replies, 'Oh! you mean Kate.'" For Kate is to Oklahoma what Jane Addams is to Chicago, its First Citizen.

PROSPECTS OF A REDUCTION IN THE POSTAGE RATE TO GERMANY.

ALMOST the first comments on the establishment of a two-cent letter rate between the United States and England (the rate goes into effect this month) included the confident assertion that, of course, Germany would be quick to follow England's example. The Berlin Government, however, has hesitated in the matter. The hesitation, we are informed by the German press, is to be ascribed to only one cause,—the financial status of the empire. The deficit of the German treasury has been steadily increasing, until it has now reached such alarming proportions that an adjustment of the finances of the empire has become an imperative duty. Under these circumstances, as might be expected, German authorities are oversensitive in matters pertaining to finance, and the fact that a reduction in the postal rates would bring about, at least temporarily, a decrease in the postal revenues, which form a large asset in the German budget, has been responsible for the attitude the German Government has taken in this matter. While the commercial interests in Germany have not hesitated to criticise this policy as narrow-minded, they have, at the same time, not failed to appreciate the difficulty under which the government is laboring.

The attitude of the German business man in this matter is set forth in an editorial article in the *Deutsche Vorkämpfer,* the leading German monthly published in the United States. This magazine also presents the result of a symposium of views on this subject by representative German-Americans, and others who are known to be particularly interested in the cementing of German-American friendship.

Prof. John W. Burgess, of Columbia University, president of the Germanistic Society of America and the first "exchange professor" at the University in Berlin, says:

> I certainly feel that the failure to effect such a postal agreement between Germany and the United States, the possibility of which I can scarcely conceive, would prove a serious disadvantage to both countries. These are the two countries which, above all others, should stand in closest relations in all respects with each other, and neither of them should lose any opportunity to strengthen the bonds that bind them together. The only objection I can see, the loss in postal revenue, would be more than made good by the increased activity of intercourse, and consequently the increased cordiality of feeling between the people of the two countries. The difference in the cost of postage would remain in the pockets of the people of the respective countries, and increase in the activity of postal intercourse would most probably, we might say in-

evitably, mean increase of activity in commerce and trade.

The well-known New York lawyer, Mr. Theodore Sutro, president of the United German Societies of the City of New York, expressed a similar opinion in even more vigorous language, while Mr. Gustav H. Schwab, who is virtual head of the North German Lloyd Line, and Mr. Hugo Ballin, general director of the Hamburg-American Line, add their endorsement. Mr. Hermann Schaaf, the head of the concern which acts as agent of the German parcel post for the United States, is, perhaps naturally, opposed to the idea. He says in part:

If other governments should follow the example set by England and the United States, Germany would, of course, have to follow suit, not so much for reasons of commercial importance, as for reasons of international courtesy. In my opinion a reduction of the present rate of postage would have hardly any influence on the volume of commerce between the two countries. America will continue to buy from Germany such goods as she can buy there cheaper than from other countries, or such goods as are exclusively manufactured in Germany, irrespective of whether the rate of postage is 2 or 5 cents. I would not expect a large increase in the volume of private intercourse between the two nations, and consequently the establishment of closer relations between Germans living in this country and the Fatherland from such reduction, although in a small measure the influence of cheaper postage might make itself felt in this respect. Export and import figures underlie the law of supply and demand, and depend upon the ability of the respective countries to compete with commercial rivals. The rate of postage will be a "quantité negligéable."

DRIVING OUT THE DUEL.

A GREAT advance in European civilization is recorded in the *Fortnightly Review* for August by Prince Alfonso de Bourbon in his "Fight Against Dueling in Europe." It is a survey of the steps which promise to make the opening years of the twentieth century distinguished for the extinction of this barbaric survival.

IN GERMANY.

The writer wrote to his uncle, Prince Charles of Löwenstein, on November 20, 1900, asking him to try to form in Germany a league against dueling. Prince Charles, by the beginning of January, 1901, had formed a small provisional committee and began to enroll members. In October, 1901, Prince Charles assembled at Leipsic the first anti-dueling meeting, at which it was decided to create courts of honor. The German National Anti-Dueling League was established, and its central committee formed on June 11, 1902. In the early part of 1907 Prince Charles induced 200 professors of the different universities to join the league. When he retired into a Dominician monastery in Holland last summer the league numbered thirty committees perfectly organized, and more than 3000 inscribed members of all religious and political opinions. Among the German students, societies bearing the name of Freie-Studentenschaft have been formed, which tend to diminish dueling. Already duels in Germany have become "infinitely more rare, especially in the army," where the custom has always prevailed.

IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

In Austria the movement began in May, 1901, with an appeal signed by ten persons of great distinction. A few months later the signatories increased to 1500, and among them sixteen princes and 364 members of the nobility. The Austrian National Anti-Dueling League was definitely constituted in 1902. An Anti-Dueling Association for students at the Vienna University was organized in 1905, and has numbered 250 members; 6300 ladies have joined the Austrian league. The diminution of duels in Austria from year to year is remarkable. The Austrian press is entirely in favor of the work.

In Hungary, said to be the country *par excellence* of duels, a National Anti-Dueling League was created in 1903. As a result, duels are diminishing in society, and committees have been able to stop and avoid several during the last five years. An officer in Budapest wrote a play against dueling in 1907. Galicia, which after Hungary is said to be the most duel-ridden country in Europe, has so far yielded to the anti-dueling movement that in the space of three years duels have almost entirely disappeared. The court of honor, which takes the place of the idiotic method of dueling, is no mere farce. A gentleman who had slandered a lady was given the alternative of exile in America during three years or boycott by his friends. He chose exile, and left the country. These courts of honor open up the prospect of a new form of social pressure which might prove a

most valuable adjunct to the more formal courts of justice. Sixteen hundred and fifty ladies have joined the league in Galicia, and their influence has largely contributed to the extermination of dueling.

IN OTHER COUNTRIES.

In Italy the Marquis Filippo Crispolti organized an Anti-Dueling League in 1902. All the doctors in Palermo, Messina, and Siena have pledged themselves not to assist in any duel. King Victor Emmanuel II. accepted the patronage of the Italian Anti-Dueling League in December, 1907.

In France the writer approached M. Joseph du Bourg, at Toulouse, in November, 1900, who formed in the following March a provisional committee with many prominent men and *ex-militaires*. In 1903 the first court of honor was created at Paris, composed of very distinguished military people.

Thanks to the creation of juries of honor in the Belgian army in 1889, dueling has disappeared. In Spain the league was started in 1904 by Baron de Albi. King Alfonso, on October 23, 1906, accepted the honorary presidency of the Spanish National Anti-Dueling League. In 1907 there were only four or five duels in the whole of Spain.

DOES WRITING AS A PROFESSION PAY?

IT has been said, we forget by whom, that an opinion is valuable only in proportion to the amount of knowledge of the subject possessed by the person who utters it.



MR. JOHN O'HARA COSGRAVE.
(Editor of *Everybody's Magazine.*)

On this basis the observations of Mr. John O'Hara Cosgrave, the successful editor of *Everybody's,* on "Present-Day Opportunities in Literature," which appear in the *New England Magazine* for September, are entitled to thoughtful consideration. We are inclined to think that the article in question, as a whole, will be distinctly disappointing to those "literary aspirants" for whom it is evidently intended. In its opening paragraphs it raises hopes, only to dash them in a sentence a little further on. Mr. Cosgrave begins so assuringly that we can fancy the whole tribe of embryo Kiplings and Crawfords, and budding Corellis and Whartons, sharpening their pencils or replenishing their inkwells preparatory to an immediate assault on Castle Success, which is so readily to surrender to them. Here are his opening words:

> This is the day of the writer. This is the new opportunity. The growth of the population and compulsory education have created a great host of readers whose demand for information and entertainment are (*sic*) supplied by newspapers, magazines, and book publishers.

Again, the "young writer" is told:

> The newspapers are waiting for him; the magazines are seeking him; the book publishers are ready to pounce upon him as soon as his head shows. Surely such visions of success and fame, with their attendant affluence, were enough to turn the head of any "literary aspirant." But, alas! for the young wielder of the quill,—or fountain-pen,—
>
> Unless he is a genius he must wait long and serve honestly the apprenticeship that is demanded by life as the wage of mastership.

Mr. Cosgrave holds that "the difficult, intangible craft of story-spinning or article-making can be mastered only by practice." Why "intangible"? And, if intangible, what is the use of practicing the craft? "But," our editor goes on to say, "the writer has this advantage over these other doctors

and lawyers, that he can make the work of learning his trade earn him a living." This will be news to most persons. It is generally supposed that literary aspirants who are waiting the much-desired "opportunity" fail utterly, in most cases, to earn a livelihood. In the very nature of things, it could hardly be otherwise.

Mr. Cosgrave does not discuss authorship from the classic or academic standpoint, but confines himself to "that phase which chiefly concerns the modern literary aspirant,—the field of the newspapers and the magazines."

> Whatever may still be urged against the sensationalism and inaccuracy of the daily press, there has come within the last few years a change for the better in the conduct of great newspapers in the large centers. . . . A demand for good writing has been developed. . . . The routine reporter cannot bring out the romance and tragedy of the news. To project the human values of current happenings, to give them their dramatic or sensational implication, the artist's touch is necessary, so there has been developed a class of journalists to whose vividness or pungency of treatment the term artistic may be fairly applied. Such writers, commonly called "star reporters," are well paid, and acquire a reputation because they are often allowed to sign their articles.

Given the necessary education and intellectual caliber, these star reporters in due course become magazine writers. "The city room of the daily newspaper is the training-ground of the article writer and story-teller of to-day." Many authors, of course, have become expert writers without passing through the city room; but the journalistic route "is a main traveled road to the attention of the magazine editor and the book publisher."

The first question, we are told, asked by the experienced magazine editor of any would-be contributor is "What do you know?" Then, "What have you done?"

> Whoever would be heard nowadays must have something to say. . . . After a man acquires skill with the tools of language he must somewhere gather material to mould. Almost without exception, the writers who to-day have the public's ear have traveled in many lands and sojourned in many environments. Some have imposed knowledge of life upon high scholarship.

The literary aspirant, having been "properly primed and trussed by city editors and copy-readers," and being now a star reporter, is ready to join "the more select company of magazine contributors." How admission to this circle may be gained is duly explained by Mr. Cosgrave, who incidentally gives an interesting description of the new magazine of to-day, which we quote in full.

> The new type of magazine evolved in America is a form of journalism imposed upon the old structure of essays, stories, and poems. It is concerned rather with tendencies and conditions than with current events, and treats these in their broadest application to the life of the nation. It breaks new ground and makes its own issues. Addressing simultaneously large audiences throughout the States, it is unshackled by local prejudice and has become an agency of illumination and reform. This development has created a demand for a new type of writer: the reporter of conditions, who must combine the knowledge and patience of the sociologist with the human instinct sense of the trained newspaper man. This type finds its best expression in Lincoln Steffens, Ray Stannard Baker, William Hard, Samuel Hopkins Adams, Charles E. Russell, and Will Irwin,—men who devote months of laborious investigation to their subjects and interpret them in human terms to their public. These men have been called "muck-rakers," for they have dragged the wrongs of individuals and classes to the light of day, but their work has been the greatest single factor in that awakening of the national conscience,—that new sense of responsibility, that resentment of greedy privilege and dishonest administration of politics and business which pervade our country to-day. They are the evangels of the new era.

The magazines are looking for "new men who can handle great subjects in a big way." And for those who are able to do this work "there is high compensation, a real reputation, and the consciousness of serving a noble cause."

As regards the pecuniary results of literary success, "the great prizes are for the few."

> A good story is worth from $100 to $1000, determined by its length, its value, and the reputation of the writer. The authors who have made a public of their own through their books are paid a higher rate than those whose reputation has not extended beyond the magazine field. . . . The writers of whom this is true average from $10,000 to $25,000 a year. . . . The less successful average from $4000 to $8000. But there are other compensations than mere dollars and cents for the writer. He is his own master; he labors when and where he pleases; and he has the satisfaction of the artist in his work. As to fame: he has the recognition of his craft rather than that of society at large; for art has not yet attained rank in America. . . . This is a transitory condition, however, and it is comforting to look forward to the time when the lion of the moment will be the brilliant novelist whose latest achievement the populace will celebrate with banquets and bonfires.

In his concluding paragraph Mr. Cosgrave admits that the difficulties confronting the literary aspirant cannot be overemphasized. Standards are being raised rather than lowered.

A HINDU OPINION OF THE VOYAGE OF THE FLEET.

THE voyage of the American fleet has attracted more public notice than any similar movement among the great navies of the world in modern times. Nations have vied with each other for the honor of extending hospitality to the officers and men, and the press universally has showered compliments and praise on the United States for the remarkable naval development it has accomplished within so comparatively short a period. Underneath these various eulogistic comments one cannot fail to detect the realization on the part of the writers that the presence of her fleet in foreign waters demonstrates that America's naval strength is no longer a *quantité négligible*, and that she has definitively entered the ranks of world-powers. To the nations of the Far East this fact has especial significance, for it seems to be tacitly agreed that the views of our Captain Hobson (noticed in the last number of the REVIEW) are destined to be realized at no very distant date, and that the future of America in the Orient is not unlikely to be beset with grave international difficulties. The situation is not without interest even to dependent India; and in the August issue of the *Modern Review* (Calcutta) Mr. Satis Chandra Basu sets forth the views entertained by some of the subjects of that great British possession.

Mr. Basu does not mince matters. He assumes without any hesitation whatsoever that "the great historic question of Asia versus Europe" will ere long come up for settlement, and that whereas "the conflict of 1905 was fought between an intensely patriotic people and a wornout autocracy," the new conflict will be "between a poor though patriotic monarchy and a rich and vigorous republic."

Internally Japan is now passing through a great financial and economic crisis. The condition of the poor has been terribly aggravated by the last war. Slowly and silently a spirit of discontent with the present state of things is growing in the kingdom. Externally she has her interests opposed to almost all the European powers. But against all these dangers must be counted the intense patriotism of the Japanese people. America, on the other hand, is financially one of the best equipped states. The condition of the poor in the United States is far better than in Japan. Externally America is the most favored state in the world.

In view of a possible conflict with Japan, this Indian writer thinks the United States may deem it necessary "to clear the Pacific Coast and its neighborhood of all sorts of Japanese influence and interests." America's flourishing industries and commerce require outlets, and the Orient is her greatest purchaser. To protect this commerce she must have some naval bases in the Pacific, and these are supplied by Hawaii and the Philippines. In regard to the latter he says that, "judging from the ordinary standards of conduct of European nations, it seems improbable that America will ever willingly grant complete independence to the Philippines."

But, on the other hand, you cannot apply the same standard in judging America that you do in judging European nations, because the history of American activity in the Orient does not in general agree with the tradition of European nations in Asia. The English, the Dutch, and the French . . . share substantially the same view, that Asiatics are not capable of self-government. But America, after only six years of occupation in the Philippines, has been able to establish a really popular legislative assembly.

Mr. Basu, somewhat pathetically, compares this with the treatment of India by Great Britain. He refers to October 16, 1907, on which day the first Philippine Assembly was inaugurated by Secretary of War Taft, as "written in golden letters in the history of the modern Philippines," but also as being a "day of national mourning for all India."

To-day young Filipinos are enacting legislation for their nation . . . and to a great degree are controlling the public affairs of their country. And this in spite of the fact that the Filipinos are in no way superior to the people of India in respect of educational and moral elevation and previous practice in the art of self-government.

He makes it clear, however, that he holds no brief for America.

Her history is stained from page to page with instances of inhuman treatment and systematic destruction of the original inhabitants of this [the American] continent. But I am judging her with reference to her present policy in the Orient, and that according to the ordinary conceptions of justice and fair play.

Turning to Japan, he finds that her lands and resources are inadequate to the rapid growth of her population. She must have outlets, but she finds obstructions to expansion in all directions. "That America should be the first Westerner to come into the inevitable conflict is due to her peculiar geographical position as well as to her commercial and territorial interests in the Pacific."

While acknowledging the patriotism, patience, and perseverance of the Japanese, and their kindness to foreigners in their social life, Mr. Basu flays them unmercifully for their actions in Korea and Formosa, charges that the history of Japanese activity in the Far East since the Russo-Japanese War does not present an honorable record, and claims that Japan, though an Asiatic country, "is acting exactly like a greedy Western nation [!]," and "the same imperialism which has degraded Britain has affected Japan." He concludes his articles with the following passage:

The permanent peace and progress of the world can only be secured by the spiritualization of the West and the partial secularization of the East, and for this purpose interaction between the two is absolutely necessary. Although the Asiatics are being excluded from Western lands at the present moment, Asia is catholic enough to welcome the Europeans [Americans?] into her land, provided they lead an honorable life; and the time will surely come when Asia will also receive the same respect and honor in the West that the West never forgets to claim in Asia.

"Let us, therefore," he adds, "welcome the American fleet into Asiatic waters. But we welcome the fleet as the protector of American national honor, and not as a robber of nations' liberties."

MORE GOLD, MORE TRADE.

THE news that South African miners are getting gold out of the ground at steadily decreasing cost has turned loose a flood of price-prophecies. They concern all those who invest or trade in stocks, bonds, or notes; and, in fact, any one interested in the prices of food, clothing, and commodities in general.

Many popular writers treat the question very simply,—since gold is becoming cheaper to produce, we will have to "pay more" for meat and potatoes and clothes and houses, and so on, but will "pay less" for bonds, notes, and other fixed evidences of debt redeemable in gold.

The practical effect of the flow of gold seems not quite so direct, though just as striking and important, when one reads an editorial published last month in the London *Statist*, —a journal which on this subject certainly commands the attention of all schools of economists. It declares that "gold is the common *measure* of all prices, but it is not the sole *determinant* of the level of prices, for all that."

A multitude of influences are constantly being exerted, all of which have some share in determining price. Over and above this, it is to be recollected that the prices of special articles may be either run up unduly or run down unduly by circumstances quite independent of the cost of producing gold, such, for example, as a great catastrophe or an extraordinary abundance. Still, the cost of producing gold has its effect. It may take some time for the full effect to be seen, owing to circumstances. But the effect will be produced after a while.

At the present time gold is the standard of value in practically every commercial country except China. In consequence the value of everything exchangeable is measured in terms of gold. It follows that as gold measures the value of all other things, the value of gold itself is measured in those other things. Consequently, if we say that the cost of producing gold is lessened, we say, in effect, that gold exchanges for a smaller quantity of other things than it did before; or, to put the matter differently, we affirm that a smaller quantity of other things exchanges for a given amount of gold; which is only another way of stating that the prices of commodities and the wages of labor have both risen.

CHEAPER GOLD FROM THE TRANSVAAL.

The exposition quoted above was addressed to a correspondent of the weekly in discussion of a former editorial, pointing out the decline in the cost of mining South African gold. Representative mines like the Robinson, the Simmer and Jack, the Langlaagte, and the Glen Deep have shown yearly decreases in the cost of milling each ton of gold, ranging from 25 per cent. to 5 per cent.

We choose these South African companies (says the *Statist*), firstly, because South Africa at the present time is setting an example to the rest of the world in the way of bringing scientific research to bear upon gold mining and generally in the introduction of economical methods; and, secondly, because South Africa is producing fully one-third of all the gold now being raised in the world, and, as far as can be seen, it is likely to produce even a larger proportion in the immediate future.

CHEAP GOLD MEANS HIGHER PRICES.

"Cheaply produced gold," the editor concludes, "must mean higher prices;" how soon, depends very largely upon the crops, because so many industries rely for their raw materials upon the annual harvests. But the likelihood that the present depreciation of

gold will continue and increase, is another way of saying that the price-rise in commodities all over the world will become greater in the next few years.

What follows? The *Statist* sees first a stimulation to trade.

Next the wage-earners benefit, not only from higher wages, but from the greater demand for labor in "good times."

Finally the banks, with their vaults full of gold, will have greater power to accommodate their customers with loans and discounts.

Of course, a period of intense trade activity usually brings over-speculation, which brings a crisis, which is followed by such a depression as 1908 has been witnessing. But in the *Statist's* opinion, we may now "look forward to a very protracted period of exceedingly good trade."

The man or woman with a fixed income, of course, is the one who does not profit by increased gold supply. But to a nation of workers, rather than of dependents, the prospects of greater and cheaper gold production cannot but be welcomed.

THE GROWTH OF THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY IN GERMANY.

THE chemical industry in Germany has developed so rapidly since the middle of the last century that from being a country which obtained the largest part of its products from abroad Germany has become the chief export center of chemical manufactures in Europe. The growth of the mining and smelting industries, particularly in coal and iron, has naturally kept pace with the perfection of chemical technology. Germany still gets a great deal of its raw materials from Great Britain, but it sends back more in finished products. In an article in the *Nord und Süd* Prof. H. Grossman gives the following table showing the growth of the chemical industry from 1880 to 1905:

	Import of Raw Materials. Millions of Marks.	Export of Raw Materials. Millions of Marks.
1880	117.7	36.9
1890	149.9	32.6
1895	168.9	37.2
1900	218.4	45.2
1905	290.6	66.5

	Import of Man'f'd Products. Millions of Marks.	Export of Man'f'd Products. Millions of Marks.
1880	102.3	200.2
1890	111.9	242.1
1895	110.9	301.7
1900	113.0	352.4
1905	140.4	475.8

The raw material comprises the ordinary articles used in chemical industry; drugs for the manufacture of medicines and perfumes; all kinds of resinous substances, and the by-products for the manufacture of lime; ferments and clarifiers; raw factory articles, and dyestuffs.

The manufactured products consist chiefly of simple chemical stuffs, bases, acids, and salts; ether and etherol, drugs and perfumes, resinoil, varnish, lacquer, and glue stuffs; explosives and igniting articles; pitch and tar; writing and drawing supplies, and dye goods.

As appears from the above table, the import of raw materials has greatly increased since 1880, but the increase in exports is proportionately much larger. The total yearly product of chemical goods, according to the official statistics, is 1,500,000 marks, and of this total one-third at least was disposed of in foreign markets.

The growth of the export trade in chemical goods has caused the countries affected by it to place a high tariff on these German products, and Professor Grossman discusses the effect this action by the foreign powers is likely to produce upon the chemical industry in Germany. Some data are already at hand which justify the conclusion that Germany will not be materially injured by the restrictive measures of the competing countries.

The year 1906 has more than maintained the standard of growth of the previous years, as the following comparative table of the proceeds of the various branches shows:

	1904 Mill. M.	*1905* Mill. M.	*1906* Mill. M.
General chemicals.	8.66	8.92	9.25
Pharmaceutic and photographic articles	9.67	9.35	9.98
Tar dyes	11.68	13.54	16.72
Explosives	10.40	11.96	12.65
Igniting stuffs	5.21	5.82	5.83
Wood coal	7.38	7.64	10.13
Fertilizing substances	8.66	9.00	9.60
India rubber goods	8.02	7.05	7.38

The record of the year 1907 was also fairly satisfactory, considering the financial disturbances and the abnormal rise in the prices of raw materials, which seriously affected some branches of the industry. Taken as a whole, says Professor Grossman, the showing of the year 1907 was such as not to justify the conclusion that the status of the German chemical industry has in any way been shaken in the struggle with the competing industries of foreign countries. If some branches of the industry, such as the soap and carbonic acid manufacturers, have suffered, it is due partly to conditions entirely independent of the new tariff relations. On the other hand, many branches of the trade showed a more flourishing condition than at any previous period. This is true especially of the organic dyestuffs. The export of indigo products alone has risen from 11,165 tons, valued at 25,700,000 marks in 1905 to 16,354 tons of the value of 41,100,000 marks in 1907.

The German Government recognizes the great importance of the chemical industry to the country, and liberally encourages the study of pure and applied chemistry in the high-schools and in the universities. "Every pfennig spent in the study and teaching of chemistry since Liebig," said Wichelhaus, the director of the technological institute of the University of Berlin, "is a most excellent investment, and it is no doubt due to this spirit in the educational institutions of Germany that Professor Haller, of Paris, was forced to admit in his official report of the World's Fair in 1900 that the preponderance of the chemical industry of Germany is a recognized and indisputable fact."

A LITERARY ESTIMATE OF TOLSTOY.

THE conspicuous ability of Mr. Edmund Gosse as a critic has seldom been so convincingly demonstrated as in his estimate of the sage of Yasnaya Polyana as a man of letters, which appears in the *Contemporary Review* for September. The romantic life of the illustrious Russian, the willing homage,—amounting to hero-worship,—that he receives from his numerous disciples, the universality of his fame, and the unique position in which, at fourscore, he stands before the world, render it exceedingly difficult to dissociate the writer from the man. "Such praise as Tolstoy has deservedly received, while a graceful and proper tribute to the crown of length of days, is apt to disturb calm critical judgment." Moreover, Tolstoy himself attributes "vastly more importance to his utterances on social, political, and religious questions than he does to his novels." And we have his own declaration that the novels and stories which he wrote before 1880 are "evil in their tendency and negligible as literature." In Mr. Gosse's opinion, "the only possible way in which one can make any useful examination of Tolstoy as a man of letters is "to decline all dealing with the philosophical and ethical opinions which he has been pouring forth during the last quarter of a century."

First of all, the fact must be emphasized that among all the extraordinary intellects that Russia has produced there are two, and probably not more than two, that are absolutely in the first class. These are Tolstoy and Dostoievsky.

Without comparing these rivals too closely together, this at least has to be pointed out,—that Tolstoy, in spite of all the wilful oddity of his later years, remains nearer to the European tradition, and therefore is easier for Western minds to understand, than the colossal genius to whom we owe "Crime and Punishment"; and also that it is from Dostoievsky, not from Tolstoy, that what is most vigorous in subsequent Russian literature descends. It is difficult to believe that the books of Maxim Gorky and of this terrible new Leonide Andréieff, whose heartrending "Sept Pendus" has just appeared, owe anything in form or substance to Tolstoy. They continue to analyze in its extremest waywardness the painful morbid sensibility of the Russian nation, as it was first discovered by Dostoievsky. Tolstoy, in spite of his greatness, and in spite of the amazing vehemence of his personal character, stands alone as a literary force.

Tolstoy's chief merit is that, like Balzac, he founds the art of the novelist on an unwearying determination to place before the reader a series of exact statements. "He is great among the greatest, precisely because no more strenuous effort was ever made by mortal man to represent the truth in a formal exposition of particulars." This quality, so rare even among eminent romance writers, and which has never been characteristic of English fiction, is the central feature of the work of Tolstoy.

His untiring watchfulness to catch and weigh the movements of mankind has given the author of "War and Peace" a right to be considered one of the most conscientious modern historians of the spirit of man. . . . He explains the laws of humanity to us by history, and history by manners.

In reviewing Tolstoy's imaginative writings one cannot fail to be struck with the command that he holds over his subject. In this respect he comes nearest to being the first novelist in the world. Two different aims are always at work in the spirit of Tolstoy. "He is eagerly interested in the military masses, the social paroxysms; and at the same time each individual, easily lost to sight and thought in the huge upheaval, is ready at any moment to be brought under the microscope."

It has been charged against Tolstoy's novels that there is no central figure, but this is scarcely true.

In "War and Peace" he set himself a task the seriousness and difficulty of which no labor of a novelist has ever exceeded,—namely, while devoting himself to the close observation of personal character, to describe the material and moral forces which dominated the entire surface of a lengthy and complicated epoch. Accordingly, in such a scheme there is a central figure, but it is not that of Napoleon or even of Koutouzof, though a species of moral grandeur alternately gives a certain centralization to each of these. What is really the "hero" of "War and Peace" is the idea of Russian national character, exhibited under the stress of violent and perilous conditions.

In the accuracy and delicacy with which Tolstoy observes essential traits of character Mr. Gosse compares him with George Sand:

They are, in fact, remarkably alike, although, heaven knows, in many things so unlike. . . . He has not that dignity and roundness, that serene full tide of melody, which make George Sand the first woman prose writer of the world, without a rival within view. There must, moreover, always be the difference between one who, like the author of "Les Maitres Sonneurs," approaches the life of simplicity from the center of civilization, and one who, like the author of "The Kreutzer Sonata," comes westward out of the frontiers of Asia, with his barbarous trappings still flung over his shoulders.

The likenesses are, however, greater than the differences; and this comparison with George Sand should be helpful in defining the position of Tolstoy.

Each of them is a peasant of genius; each, that is to say, regards life not from the aristocratic and sentimental but from the rustic and positive point of view. . . . The two great writers are one in clinging to an obstinate assurance of the probity and charity of the peasant class. . . . They are curiously similar in their method of treating landscape. . . . George Sand opens a window, out of which we see the Creuse or the Indre winding through a fat landscape. So Tolstoy flings wide the shutters, and gray marsh-lands, lined with melancholy birches, stretch before us further than the eye can reach.

Although humor is not entirely absent from Tolstoy's works, it has no prominent place there. Indeed, the jocular view of life has never appealed to him.

In forecasting the estimate of future generations, Mr. Gosse says:

How Tolstoy will appear in the eyes of posterity it is, of course, impossible to say. But in the eyes of the contemporaries of his old age he seems to be the author of one elaborate novel of consummate merit, "Anna Karénina," in which he has rivaled the first psychologists of Europe; of two romances of excessive length, "War and Peace" and "Resurrection," in which the most brilliant qualities are found side by side with much that is tiresome, incoherent, and abnormal; and of a large number of shorter stories in which the author oscillates between an artistic probity of the most admirable kind and a deplorable, didactic charlatanism. He has magnificent powers of description, a certain grandeur in the portraiture of life, a power over detail which has scarcely been rivaled, but his ideas of construction are primitive, and his absence of logical consistency distressing. If we may hazard a prediction, there will be some pages of Tolstoy that will live forever, but their effect will for some time be obscured by the circumstance that in the mass of his works there is, in Landor's phrase, "overmuch to pare away."

LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

SECURITIES ARE PAYING FOR THEIR KEEP.

A MARYLAND merchant complains that the rise in prices on the stock and bonds markets this year was not justified by business conditions, and must have been produced by "vicious manipulation." Why, his own trade is hardly half as active as last year.

"Yes," he was told, "and you are one of the very men who are furnishing the lever for higher prices,—easy money. The bank is loaning you only half as much as last year; the other half went to a Baltimore bank. There was no demand for it among merchants there, so it went on to New York. There banks and trust companies are briskly competing for commercial paper, and the best they get for six months is 3 to 3½ per cent., —because all over the country the same thing has been happening.

"Can you blame rich men if they use their high credit to borrow this money at 3 per cent and put it into bonds at 4½ per cent., or stocks at 5 and 6 per cent.? They expect to sell at equal or higher prices, because they see that trade improvement, though slow, is steady.

"Then they know the different investment properties. It is their business to. There is a risk, but they can afford to take it, and average it up among dozens of different bonds and stocks. Meanwhile they make the difference in interest, which works out at 10 or 20 per cent. on the actual amount of capital they invest in such transactions."

The merchant confessed that he would do the same thing himself if he could.

As for manipulation,—bluffing has been going on this year in stock-trading just as in horse-trading and other kinds of trading. But it would be hard to find that this "selling in circles," as Mr. Harriman neatly puts it, was due any more to the "bulls" than to the "bears." Certainly, the most flagrant example of "matched orders" on record this year represented an effort to lower prices, not to raise them.

The flat failure of that attempt is one more illustration of the fact that the successful financiers are not those who defy the workings of natural conditions, but those who see them first. The price-drops which did occur resembled those of other Presidential years.

SURPRISE AT THE LOW RATES.

In New York City the greatest surprise was expressed during the early weeks of September that money had not yet "tightened." Of course, interest is expected to become low after a panic, but not to stay so. Rates almost invariably rise in the autumn; the farmers call on the country banks for money to pay farm hands, ship their crops, etc., and thus the flow of cash is away from New York City. "There is no doubt that money is moving to the country in good volume," says *Bradstreet's*. But still the rates stay low. Perhaps the panic made interior bankers cautious and led them to keep supplies which are now on hand for the farmers. Certainly there is a universal note of astonishment at the ease of September money, running through such well-informed organs of finance and trade as *Dun's Review*, the *Financial Chronicle*, *Harper's Weekly*, the London *Statist*, and the elaborate weekly financial reviews of the New York newspapers.

AN UNPRECEDENTED CONDITION.

For instance, the New York *Sun* sees affecting the present security market "a combination of favorable factors that never existed before on a similar occasion in our country's financial history."

There exists in the country an abounding supply of money, not paper money or that proceeding from mere currency inflation, but real money, —namely, gold. The same condition exists in other countries. The general gold supply of the world is, moreover, increasing at an unmatched rate. Secondly, the prospect all along this year has been for good crops in the United States sold at high prices. In the third place it is now clear that last year's financial trouble, while severely felt in the East, was felt in the West, broadly speaking, little if at all. The Western people are still consumers at a relatively unchecked rate, and almost half of the country is not aware that Wall Street has been troubled in any way.

In these things, therefore, lie the impulses that have induced people to buy stocks in Wall Street in the last ten months and,—what is of equal purpose in accounting for the advance in quota-

tions that has taken place,—have induced owners of stocks to refrain from selling them.

UNFORESEEN BY SOME BANKERS.

Not only outsiders, but many prominent bankers, failed to size up the situation last summer. Howard Schenck Mott in *Harper's Weekly* writes that "only a couple of months ago many people in the financial community of more or less experience expected moderately high money rates at New York during the last four months of the present year. Even now a few continue to predict 'tight money.'"

It was "vision," with regard to the probable development of present monetary conditions that undoubtedly influenced the larger capitalists and banking interests early this year to take a pronounced position on the side of rising prices in the stock market; and as the months have passed since then, and their judgment has been found to be correct, they have ventured farther and farther in the direction of higher prices. It would take a bold man to say that the end had come in this process of discounting in the stock market the return of prosperity. Certainly, so far as monetary conditions are concerned, the immediate prospect does not warrant any great expectation of a restriction of activity in that direction.

Not only America, but the whole world, is enjoying easy money. The London *Statist* considers that "all the indications are favorable to high-class securities," by which it means those that are able to continue dividend payments. And this weekly sees a trade revival not far off.

Cheap money, then, will rule during the remainder of the year and will continue to stimulate all economic forces. Trade is improving in the United States; in India the monsoon is proceeding satisfactorily; the crop reports from the United States, from our colonies, and from Japan are most excellent. From all this it is safe to conclude that we are about to see a very marked improvement in trade.

HARVESTS, IRON, AND EXPORTS GOOD.

Nor has the stock market advance been out of line with the fundamental trade prospects at home. "The harvests of 1908 have for all practical purposes ceased to be a matter of speculation," says the *New York Times'* "Weekly Financial Review," "and it is now certain that the cereals will yield larger returns than last year." *Dun's Review* finds the iron and steel industry "more encouraging than at any previous time this year."

Add to this that America is wearing its old clothes with a vengeance. Nearly one-third less was imported from Europe in the period of 1908 covered by the *Financial Chronicle* of September 12, as compared with the same period of 1907,—$409,000,000 as against $601,000,000. The falling off was greatest in dry goods,—$84,000,000 from $132,000,000. Meanwhile our exports have actually increased by nearly five million dollars.

Of course, the wheels are not spinning quite so fast. Railroad net earnings are about one-sixth less than last year, and bank clearings one-fifth. But well-informed writers and bankers all over the world look forward to a steadiness of improvement, such as is reflected by the greater number reported each two weeks of freight cars at work. It is this anticipation which reconciled disinterested students to higher security prices; and it was a low money rate which made the rise practicable.

THE SURPLUS,—OPTIMISTIC OR REAL?

A MISTAKE about a "surplus" came near making trouble for one reader of this magazine not long ago. Now is a good time to tell his story. In October the companies that issue stocks and bonds are just beginning to publish their reports for the year ending June 30; and in these reports there is no item that ought to mean more or that may means less than the "Surplus."

Simple arithmetic is all most people need in order to read the "earnings" part of the report. It is easy to figure out whether the company made enough money to pay the interest on its bonds, and had enough left over to pay the dividends on its stock, with enough remaining to form a comfortable "margin of safety."

But the balance sheet is not as simple. It is a quick sketch of the company's financial pose at the end of office hours, June 30. But was the artist a realist,—or an optimist? The character of the whole picture can often be told by a glance at the figures called "Surplus" and an attempt to find just where it actually exists among the company's valuables.

In justice to the hundreds of companies that carefully and wisely depict themselves on their balance sheets, it is well to follow out the experience of the reader above men-

tioned, who came near taking an optimistic surplus for a real one.

This particular inquirer wrote the publishers of this magazine a few weeks ago about investing in the preferred and common stocks of a large manufacturing company. He was surprised to see them selling so low, —on a basis to yield the investor about 9 per cent and 12 per cent., respectively,—in spite of the fact that the company was a very large one, for long years a dividend earner. "And besides," the subscriber wrote, "it has accumulated a surplus of about $2,000,000. Is not the stock a 'safe' investment?"

The answer stated that the surplus seemed more optimistic than real,—and that, in the judgment of the publishers, it did not form an indication of safety for the stock. Ten days later, the company went into a receivership, surplus and all.

SURPLUS IS INSURANCE.

The theory of such a bookkeeping contradiction is well set forth in the article "What Is a True Reserve Fund?" appearing in a careful English monthly of finance. The point is emphasized that a surplus or "reserve," as the English call it, is real only when it is separate, and put into something quickly marketable, such as stocks and bonds, —not when invested in the business, which plan "is as opposed to the essential idea of the true Reserve as would be the policy of a man who, preferring to insure his house and effects from fire by setting aside a sufficient sum for the purpose, were to invest the fund in additional furniture wherewith to equip the house. The conflagration which wrecked his home would at one and the same time destroy his 'reserve.'"

Now the American company that failed was in just this position. Its surplus was all "in the business." The story is told by a brief glance at the balance sheet, which was substantially as follows, with a few changes made to produce round numbers, without changing real relations:

ASSETS.

Accounts receivable	$2,000,000
Bills receivable	1,000,000
Cash	500,000
Merchandise	1,000,000
Cost of plants, steamboats, real estate, etc. (including good will)	6,000,000
Total	$10,500,000

LIABILITIES.

Accounts payable	$800,000
Bills payable	2,200,000
Preferred stock	2,500,000
Common stock	3,000,000
SURPLUS	2,000,000
Total	$10,500,000

Did all this represent any more than the company's *hope* that it was two million dollars ahead? If it did, there must be $2,000,000 of actual value among the Assets to correspond. Where is it?

It is not in Accounts and Bills Receivable, which happen to amount to just the same as those Payable,—$3,000,000. Nor in Cash and Merchandise, which, put together, fall $1,000,000 short of the amount of preferred stock outstanding. It must therefore be sought among these tremendous items which "cost" the company $6,000,000. Against this is to be set the $1,000,000 of preferred stock, remaining uncovered, together with the $3,000,000 common,—total, $4,000,000, which would seem indeed to leave a surplus of $2,000,000 worth of "plants, steamboats, real estate, etc."

But what were these "worth"? Perhaps not one-half as much, if need came to raise money in a hurry. So the publisher's answer ran. And when the need came, ten days later, the impatient creditors evidently did not value the factories, sites, equipment, and good will at even half their cost.

Optimism is a quality that energetic business men ought to show, but not on the balance sheets, unless so stated. More tangible, cashable assets are needed to balance the amount shown as "surplus."

AN ACT OF SELF-RESTRAINT.

Coming back to the English periodical, one gets a good simile. "The reserve fund of a public company is merely the equivalent, in the world of finance, of the household 'stocking.' It is an emergency fund, an insurance against the ways of fate."

The sum reserved is set apart out of profit otherwise legally distributable to the shareholders. It is thus *an act of self-restraint* on the part of the proprietors,—the deliberate sequestration of earnings at the dictates of prudence.

Another example of a slow reserve tied up in trade is found by the English author in the balance sheet of a successful stock company, popular with English investors. With a total capital of £2,500,000, it showed a substantial reserve of £175,000. But after searching the vast total of more than £2,750,000 of assets, the English author finds it is "indisputably clear, by this method of analysis, that the whole of the 'Reserve' upon which this company relies is locked up in—

"I.—The 'stock of raw material and manufactured products in London and at branches at home and abroad.'

"II.—Stocks of advertising material on hand.

"III.—Tablets, show cards, and advertisements unexhausted

"IV.—Balance of 'good will,' 'trademarks,' and 'patent rights,' freehold and leasehold property, and holdings in (subsidiary companies).

"V.—Balance of book debts.

"This is a typical case of a reserve fund 'invested in the business.' In the event of an emergency the company must either sell off its stock at ruinous prices, and thereby vitally injure its trading capacity, or raise money on such portion of its real estate as is not already hypothecated to the holders of the £500,000 debenture stock.

"I am not questioning the stability of the magnificent business when I contend that the principle here illustrated is unsound.

"A reserve fund, to be effective, must be held in assets which are independent of the fluctuations of the business it is intended to safeguard. It must be available at the moment of need, not sunk in assets which, valuable as they may be in periods of ordinary trading, are rendered worthless in the hour of crisis by the crisis itself. When all else is failing, the reserve fund assets must maintain their normal value and be capable of producing the cash equivalent of the figure at which they stand in the accounts."

The thing is correctly done in the reports of such American railroads as the Pennsylvania and Union Pacific. The exact amount and value of each security held in the treasury is stated, and the total may be compared with the profit and loss, or surplus.

Of course, such rough and ready glances at balance sheets cannot tell the whole story. An accountant familiar with the conditions of each trade is needed to go behind more of the figures. Bad debts may exist among the accounts receivable. Old, damaged, or otherwise unsalable stock may have been figured in among the merchandise and stock on hand. And then, companies may possess financial strength, even though their surpluses be "lost" in the business. But the few minutes spent in searching for a surplus and learning its nature, whether actual or merely hopeful, tells more about the condition of the average company, in less time, than any other process.

THE FOUR ELEMENTS OF MORTGAGE SECURITY.

"WHY do you believe that any investment, in any kind or combination of securities, may very well include a real estate mortgage?"

This question was asked by a man who wanted to put all his money in the stock market, "where he could turn it into cash at any time."

It is both the weak and the strong feature of a real estate mortgage that it is permanent until it comes due. For this reason, one would hardly choose it for all one's money; but it is very wise to have a certain proportion in the mortgage as a substantial anchor of income.

A banker who has specialized in mortgages, James L. Houghteling, describes their four elements of security in the *World To-Day*, putting them very clearly, and bringing out good rules for the individual investor. "He need not believe anything except the testimony of accumulated facts; he need not be an auditor skilled to analyze balance sheets, nor an expert with special knowledge to understand technical reports. His stronghold is common sense."

The first element, Mr. Houghteling writes, is that of "present value"; the second, "stability of value"; the third, "moral risk"; the fourth, "condition of mortgage." "The first of these elements can be scientifically determined, the second and third can be ascertained with comparative definiteness, while the fourth is largely a matter of proper care and skill in drawing up the legal papers."

1. The actual value of a piece of real estate at any time is arrived at by blending together two values, the selling value and the income value. The first is determined from actual transactions, previous transfers of the piece of property in question, or recent sales of other properties which are similar in location and condition. A mass of testimony can usually be accumulated on this point without great difficulty. This is modified by the item of income value, a fair capitalization of the rents which are being received from the property.

2. How long this value will be maintained is the second problem. Of course, the depreciation in a building can be written off systematically; it varies with the type and grade of construction of the building, ordinarily ranging from 2 per cent. to 5 per cent. each year. If then the character of the neighborhood remains unchanged, it is a matter of mathematics to determine the value of the security at any given time. On the character of the neighborhood depends the amount of rent that can be collected for a fixed amount of space; this is, therefore, another feature in determining the value of a building.

3. The element of moral risk is often overlooked by the individual lender. Such questions as "Is he over-reaching himself?" "Is he 'slow pay'?" "Is there legitimate reason for his borrowing?" are intricate and hard to answer, but they are of as much interest to the lender as "Is he honest?" and "Is he financially responsible?"

4. The conditions of mortgage are, for the most part, lawyers' affairs; only one need enter into this discussion. This is the element of time. Nowadays the prevalent length of term for a real estate mortgage is five years; longer terms are sometimes specified, and three year mortgages, or even two, are not infrequently found. These short terms tend to offset possible depreciation or fundamental change in the property or its surroundings. A surer way to forestall depreciation is by providing part payments at stated intervals in reduction of the principal sum; this is known as *the serial plan*. Such serial payments can be made of a size that can be cared for out of the earnings of the property, so that the income producing power is transformed from an indirect to a direct protection to the lender. Reference has already been made to this serial plan as being a double safeguard in that it reduces the mortgage debt and at the same time increases the borrower's cash investment in the property, and stimulates his pride in it and his desire to remain in possession.

HOW THE BANKER ASSISTS.

The individual investor, therefore, has to make sure that his lawyer is responsible and has found the abstract of title to be a proper one; that fire insurance policies with "mortgage loss clauses" have been taken out and that the borrower pays his taxes regularly, so that there will be no tax liens to interfere with the title to the property.

All these services are done without cost to the investor by the mortgage banker, and there are plenty of firms which have a reputation for satisfactory performance. Mr. Houghteling tells of other things:

The mortgage banker also collects and remits the interest and the principal when due, without charge to you. It is his duty to remind you of the maturity of interest and principal notes, and all you have to do is to send them to him for collection. Furthermore, he stands between you and the borrower, sparing you all contact with the latter; in fact, the borrower need not know who you are. This is often the means of avoiding numberless small inconveniences. In short, you have a right, in dealing through a mortgage banker, to throw on his shoulders all the details, which to you may be a burden, but to him will be merely routine business.

THE ATCHISON,—A RAILROAD WELL MANAGED.

ONE feature behind every good investment is good management. Sometimes the right opportunity is long in securing the right man, and security holders suffer for their interest and dividends until he is found.

Such is the history of the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé, as told by John Moody in *Moody's Magazine*. Most striking is the company's change for the better with the accession in 1895 of Mr. Edward Payson Ripley, one of the cleverest and most responsible of American railroad presidents.

Both in that year and in 1889, the Atchison had failed, and cut down its fixed expenses, which meant that millions of dollars' worth of bonds, many of which had been furnishing needed income to holders, were forced to pass their interest payments. The stockholders, of course, "did without," and the second time they were assessed $10 per share.

But after ten years of caution and energy, the company is now one of the favorites for investors. Not only its underlying bonds, but also the "adjustments," which were issued on a part interest payment plan, are regarded now as high grade investment securities; and, says Mr. Moody, "the 5 per cent. preferred stock, which in the reorganization was issued in exchange for old second mortgage and income bonds, has paid its full dividend since 1900, and is now in the class of permanently secured preferred stock investments. The common stock, which less than ten years ago sold for $12 per share, began paying dividends in 1901, and since that year has regularly paid 4 per cent. or more every year, selling at or near its full face value." It now pays 5 per cent., and sells around 90.

And the company is as big as it is sound. Its 9300 miles rank it with the ten greatest railroads of the world. Of course, it cannot yet be as steady an earner as Eastern trunk lines. But its possibilities are enormous.

The States through which the Atchison system now runs have enjoyed a marvelous growth in both population and wealth since 1895, which fact is reflected to a decided degree in the earnings figures of the Atchison. Its gross receipts have increased from about $30,000,000 in 1897 to nearly $95,000,000 in 1907. Its surplus above charges, which in 1897 aggregated only $1,500,000 against total charges of less than $6,000,000, was in 1907 more than $21,000,000 beyond total charges of over $13,000,000.

The 1908 figures, not given by Mr. Moody, show a heavy falling off of the "surplus above charges," which is $6,000,000 less than last year. The business depression, and expensive improvements, are largely responsible.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT PUBLICATIONS.

SOME WORKS OF FICTION.

Together. By Robert Herrick. Macmillan. 595 pp. $1.50.

This is a frank, very frank study of marriage as it exists in the United States to-day, or at least as the author believes it exists. Professor Herrick has taken for his exhaustive study of this theme five or six couples and made them each one offer its own peculiar testimony in support of his general contention that the marriage relation in this country is not, in general, a beautiful or successful thing. The hasty, ill-advised mating that fills the records of our



ROBERT HERRICK.
(Author of "Together.")

divorce courts, the unwillingness of so many women to bear children, the constant craving for sensation and material comfort which characterizes our American life,—these facts are handled with vigor, sincerity, often the true artistic touch. Only one of the couples in the book have from the beginning the normal relation, and these are not of the heroic stuff about which fiction is usually written. They live quite normal, healthful lives, helpful one to the other, have many children and are glad of them. They are, however, Professor Herrick would have us believe, if not the exception, in a minority. One is not compelled to unreservedly agree with the novelist's theories or with the frank treatment he gives them in order to admit that he has written with much enthusiasm an absorbingly interesting story.

A Little Brother of the Rich. By Joseph Medill Patterson. Chicago: Reilly & Co. 361 pp., ill. $1.50.

This story is intended to be an exposure of wickedness in high places. Men and women of wealth and social prestige in New York life are represented in its pages in characters animated by the most sordid motives and inflamed by the most bestial passions. There is little that is attractive in the picture. No need to suppress a description that makes the sins of society so contemptible and repulsive and flavorless. Vice, in this portrayal, is indeed a creature of hideous mien,—something hardly to be endured, still less pitied or embraced. It is conceivable that a group of beings as abandoned and vicious as those depicted by Mr. Patterson might be gathered from the ranks of the New York rich, but if that is the case a reasonable optimism prevents our believing that such a group would be in any sense representative of New York society. Nevertheless, Mr. Patterson has delivered a telling blow at the evils that he uncovers.

Halfway House. By Maurice Hewlett. Scribner. 424 pp. $1.50.

Mr. Hewlett, who does so well in handling the blood-stirring romantic themes of medieval romance, appears a little out of place in this "comedy of degrees," as he calls it, dealing in somewhat Meredithian fashion with the love experiences of a susceptible young English girl who is a rather puzzling combination of naïveté and shrewdness and who seems to have a special gift for eliciting avowals of love from many and widely diverse types of men. It is not quite easy to see the comedy in the book, although as the author suggests that there is one perhaps there is. Mr. Hewlett's own careful and distinctive style makes the story his despite the unfamiliar milieu.

Sowing Seeds in Danny. By Nellie L. McClung. Doubleday, Page & Co. 313 pp., ill. $1.

A wholesome, optimistic story of country life in the Canadian Middle West centering around the doings and sayings of an imaginative, heroic, fascinating little Irish girl, Pearlie Watson, a sister of the Danny in whom it was the intention of the beautiful, rich lady theorist of the neighborhood to sow the seeds of a better, more literary life. There is nothing complicated or over-analytical in the book, but it breathes an atmosphere of wholesome simplicity and the fundamental heart virtues. There is just enough plot and love motive to make the story "go." The attention of the reader, however, never leaves the little twelve-year-old Pearlie and her quaint but beautiful ideas of life.

A Lord of Lands. By Ramsey Benson. Holt. 326 pp. $1.50.

This is an attractively written story of a workingman with a large family who left the city to become a farmer in the Northwest. Instead of venturing alone on this rather hazardous experiment, the hero of the tale, who serves as his own narrator, succeeds in interesting a group of his city friends and their families in his project; and the little colony, after going through the grasshopper plague and other unforeseen calamities, is finally enabled to pay for the new lands in the West and to make a comfortable living. The book gains its interest from its definite statement of difficulties encountered and the way in which they were surmounted.

A Grand Army Man. By Harvey J. O'Higgins. Century. 253 pp., ill. $1.50.

Mr. O'Higgins has novelized,—we believe that is the term,—David Belasco's successful play, in which David Warfield's interpretation of the character of Wes' Bigelow was one of the notable successes of the last dramatic season in New York. The play was an unusually popular one, and the book will not disappoint the many friends of Wes' Bigelow among his Grand Army comrades and others.

BOOKS OF TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

Lisbon and Cintra. By A. C. Inchbold. Duffield & Co. 248 pp., ill. $3.50.

The Alps in Nature and History. By W. A. B. Coolidge. Dutton. 440 pp., ill. $2.50.

The Cradle of the Deep. By Sir Frederick Treves. Dutton. 378 pp., ill. $4.

From Peking to Mandalay. By R. F. Johnston. Dutton. 460 pp., ill. $5.

These four books of serious travel description take the reader through many different interesting regions, from the little Iberian kingdom on the Tagus to the far Eastern city which we know so largely through Kipling's verse. Lisbon, Mr. Inchbold would have us believe, is one of the most fascinating of the world's capitals. It is well worthy of its name, which, according to the three etymological origins given, means light, sunshine, and beauty. Even the old Latin name for Portugal, Lusitania, he would have us follow the poet Camoens in believing, is built upon the root *Luz*, the Portuguese word for light. Mr. Inchbold's descriptive style is easy and pleasant, and the colored illustrations, by Stanley Inchbold, add to the artistic attraction of the volume. Mr. Coolidge modestly announces that more than forty years' "wandering through almost every district of the great mountain system known as the Alps" has been the basis for his volume on their nature and history. The maps and illustrations in this volume are very helpful. Particularly interesting are the chapters on "The Alpine Folk," their political allegiance, mother tongues, and religions. In "The Cradle of the Deep," Sir Frederick Treves has given an account of a leisurely voyage to the West Indies, in the course of which he studied particularly the old Spanish main. It was in the "seclusion of these gorgeous islands that the long sea story of England was



"DANNY" TELLING THE BEAUTIFUL LADY WHAT HE LIKED BEST TO EAT.
(Frontispiece from "Sowing Seeds in Danny.")

begun," he says. "The West Indies became the nursery of the British navy, the school where the thews were hardened and the sea lessons learned. . . . Here grew from puny beginnings the germ of the great sea power of the world." Mr. Johnston's journey, "From Peking to Mandalay," took him through North China, Burma, Tibet, and Yunnan. The volume is illustrated from photographs and has an excellent map.

Persia: The Awakening East. By W. P. Cresson. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 275 pp., ill. $3.50.

This well and interestingly written account of the present condition of the Shah's empire, dealing especially with the important events which within the past few months have all but transformed the traditional policy and government of this ancient kingdom, is the result of many years' study and extensive travel in Persia. A clear light is thrown upon the political and commercial intrigues and revolutionaries of Russia, Germany, and England in those remote and generally inaccessible regions which owe allegiance to the Persian monarch. Most of the photographs which illustrate the volume were taken by the author's brother, Mr. E. V. Cresson, who accompanied him on his several trips.

From Libau to Tsushima. By the late Eugene S. Politovsky. Dutton. 307 pp. $1.50.

This is a spirited account of the voyage of the Russian Baltic fleet under Admiral Rozhestvenski, including a description of the Dogger Bank incident, in a series of letters to the wife of Lieutenant Politovsky, who was Engineer-



A GEOGRAPHICAL COMPARISON OF GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES.

(Map reproduced from "The Twentieth Century American.")

in-Chief of the squadron, and met his death at the battle of Tsushima (the sea of Japan). The translation is by Major F. R. Godfrey, the British military expert.

The Twentieth Century American. By H. Perry Robinson. Putnam. 463 pp. $1.75.

An unusually well-informed and sympathetic piece of international observation and analysis on social, economic, political, and commercial conditions and facts in England and the United States. It is a fair, impartial, and illuminating comparative study of the two English-speaking peoples by an Englishman who has lived for twenty years in the United States and knows American ideas and institutions unusually well for a foreigner. Moreover, he,—*mirabile dictu*,—has a keen sense of humor. Is the difference between the English and American point of view partly due to the difference in size of the countries? Perhaps it is, he says, and prints the comparative map to illustrate the difference.

RECENT BIOGRAPHY.

Bernard Shaw. By Holbrook Jackson. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. 233 pp., ill. $1.50.

This book is an excellent combination of memoir and appreciation. Bernard Shaw is treated under the four distinct heads: "The Man," "The Fabian," "The Playwright," and "The Philosopher." The work is not minutely biographical, but sufficient detail is given to make clear the environment in which this erratic genius has developed his art.

Famous Indian Chiefs I Have Known. By Major-Gen. O. O. Howard. Century. 364 pp., ill. $1.50.

General Howard's reminiscences of Indian chiefs were compiled for the benefit of youthful readers and originally published in the *St. Nicholas Magazine*. They deal with a long line of famous Indian leaders, beginning with the renowned Seminole, Billy Bowlegs, and ending with Geronimo, the last Apache chief on the warpath. The greatest Indian warrior with whom General Howard was in combat was Chief Joseph, of the Nez Percés, but there were several others only less valiant than he. The unique character of these reminiscences makes them interesting to readers of all ages.

Edgar Allan Poe. By John Macy. Small, Maynard & Co. 112 pp., por. $0.75.

Among American writers of the early nineteenth century, Poe at least will not suffer for lack of biographers. An addition to the already long list of lives and memoirs of the poet has been made by John Macy in an admirable little volume contributed to the series of Beacon Biographies. In the brief compass of 112 small pages Mr. Macy has contrived to present all the facts in Poe's life that are of legitimate public interest, giving at the same time considerable judicious comment on his literary undertakings. Poe was one of that large group of celebrities the centenaries of whose births will be celebrated during the year 1909.

HYGIENE AND SANITATION.

Consumption: Its Prevention and Cure Without Medicine. By Charles H. Stanley Davis, M.D. New York: E. B. Treat & Co. 218 pp. $1.

Apropos of the Tuberculosis Congress at Washington and the stimulus that it has given to the crusade against the White Plague, the publishers have brought out a second edition of Dr. Charles H. Stanley Davis' useful book on "Consumption: Its Prevention and Cure Without Medicine." The present volume contains additional chapters on bovine tuberculosis, the use of milk, general tuberculosis, marriage and the offspring, and a list of the institutions in the United States where tuberculosis patients are received.

The Prevention of Tuberculosis. By Arthur Newsholme. Dutton. 429 pp. $3.

This volume is written almost solely from the standpoint of the public health administrator. While intended primarily for the use of health officers, the book should be found useful to all medical practitioners, members of hospital boards, and to all persons interested in the progress of preventive medicine. It was written for an English public, but it has no limitations or style or expression which bar it from American circulation.

The Care of the Body. By Francis Cavanagh. Dutton. 292 pp. $2.50.

This is a book of practical hygienic suggestions made by a British physician. It covers many topics not ordinarily included in books on hygiene, giving detailed directions as to the

care of the hair and skin in addition to the usual advice regarding exercise, bathing, sleep, and so forth.

SOCIOLOGY.

Social Psychology. By Edward A. Ross. Macmillan. 372 pp. $1.50.

Professor Ross takes his readers into his confidence in the preface of this work and frankly admits that, in spite of infinite pains and thirteen years of experience in university teaching of the subject, he feels sure that his book is strewn with errors. Nevertheless, he has wisely decided that this young science of social psychology can make no rapid advance if its devotees are always fearful of being found wrong on a few points. It is better that the truth mixed with error should be published than that the science should be retarded by foolish fears of criticism. Professor Ross is one of the few specialists in the subject who are able to popularize their discoveries and to make the subject interesting to the lay mind.

Colonization. By Albert G. Keller. Ginn & Co. 630 pp.

Dr. Keller holds the chair of the science of society in Yale University. His volume is a scholarly study of colonization, prepared for the purpose of providing a textbook on the subject. Recognizing the vast amount of material in print on the British and French colonization systems, these have been virtually omitted from consideration and attention given in this volume principally to the ancients (in which he includes the Spanish and Portuguese) and among the moderns, the Germans and Italians. Several excellent maps complete the volume.

Amana: The Community of True Inspiration. By Bertha M. H. Shambaugh. Iowa City: State Historical Society of Iowa. 414 pp., ill.

This volume tells the story of the remarkably successful community and religious enterprise that for many years has had its seat in the State of Iowa. The original sources of this history being entirely in the German and long guarded with more or less jealousy from the inquisitions of the stranger, the outside world has had only fragmentary knowledge of the genesis and life of this unique community. We are indebted to Miss Shambaugh for a sympathetic and well-proportioned account of the social and spiritual growth of Amana, and a perusal of this account will tend to confirm our respect for the people who have transplanted from Europe to American soil the principles of "true inspiration."

MUSIC AND THE ARTS.

The Standard Concert Guide. By George P. Upton. A. C. McClurg & Co. 502 pp., ill. $1.75.

Had Mr. George P. Upton explained whose standard and what concerts his "Standard Concert Guide" represented, it would be easier to make serviceable comments on this volume. In general, though we deny that the text is throughout "intelligible to those unacquainted with the science of music," we readily avow Mr. Upton's style to be clear and dignified, and his opinions to be stated with the reserve and conservatism befitting a volume of the "handbook" order. This "Guide" is, in fact, sufficiently safe and authoritative if one can accept the seemingly arbitrary method of selection. For, even bowing to Mr. Upton's choice of works from the composers he has listed, the inclusion of obscure British writers of insignificant cantatas, like Smart and Hattan and Corder, does not compensate one for the exclusion of such international names as Svendsen and Debussy, Mac Dowell and Sgambati, Glazunor and Rimsky-Korsakov. On the other hand, we must commend the author's excellent judgment in giving large recognition to the genius of Richard Strauss and Edward Elgar, despite the newness of their fame.

Arts and Crafts in the Middle Ages. By Julia de Wolf Addison. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 378 pp., ill. $3.

The revival of interest in arts and crafts seems to demand an adequate presentation of the results that remain to us of the medieval workmanship in the various departments of applied art. Simple information of this kind is not easily found in the elaborate works that have been heretofore devoted to the subject, but there can be no doubt that tourists would gain much by way of appreciation of the arts and crafts of the Middle Ages as they have been preserved to our own day if they were but led to consider the subject of their origin and construction. This is what is attempted in the volume before us, which is illustrated from examples of most of the medieval crafts.

OTHER BOOKS OF THE MONTH.

Character Portraits from Dickens. Selected by Charles Welsh. Small, Maynard & Co. 339 pp. $1.

The idea of this book of selections from Dickens is to present those descriptions of individuals which are the most vivid and concise rather than those which reveal their characters in conversation or in their actions only. More than 150 pen portraits, selected from the 1500 different characters portrayed by Dickens, make up this little volume. The material selected is arranged alphabetically according to the names of the characters.

Wireless Telegraphy and Telephony. By Walter W. Massie and Charles R. Underhill. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company. 76 pp., ill. $1.

This is a decidedly elementary description of the achievements and possibilities of wireless telegraphy and telephony. No technical words are used and the explanations given are such as any one might understand.

The Book of the Little Past. By Josephine Preston Peabody. Houghton Mifflin Company. 50 pp., ill. $1.50.

This is a collection of charming verses for and about children, some of which really deserve to rank with Stevenson's melodies in his "Child's Garden of Verses."

The Witchcraft Delusion in Colonial Connecticut. By John M. Taylor. New York: Grafton Press. 172 pp., ill. $1.50.

For one reason or another the facts regarding the witchcraft delusion in old Connecticut have never been fully disclosed. Up to the present time the story has remained hidden in the ancient records and in private manuscripts. From these authoritative sources Mr. Taylor has now compiled a fairly complete history of the episode, to which he has appended a bibliographical note giving a partial list of the authorities and records in witchcraft literature which may be consulted by the reader.

BOOKS RECEIVED FROM FOREIGN SOURCES.

España en Cuba (Spain in Cuba). By Casimiro Fernandez. Havana: La Exposicion.

Kraft (Power): Studies in International Economics and Culture. By Prof. E. Reyer. Leipzig: Wilhelm Engelmann.

Arbitration in Latin America. By Gonzalo de Quesada. Rotterdam: M. Wyt & Son.

Theodore Roosevelt, The Man of the Big Stick. By R. P. J. Tutein Nolthenius. Haarlem: H. D. Tjeenk Willink & Son.

The Shia Turks. By Rev. G. E. White. London: The Victoria Institute.

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Geyserland: Empiricisms in Social Reform. By Richard Hatfield. Washington, D. C.: Published by the author. 451 pp. $3.

The Blotting Book. By E. F. Benson. Doubleday, Page & Co. 255 pp. $1.

The Essays of Francis Bacon. Edited by Mary A. Scott. Scribner. 293 pp. $1.25.

Paul the Mystic. By James M. Campbell, D.D. Putnam. 285 pp. $1.50.

Liberal Theology and the Ground of Faith. By Hakluyt Egerton. Dutton. 248 pp. $1.25.

The Search After Truth. By Charles W. Pearson. Boston: Sherman, French & Co. 303 pp. $1.25.

Literary and Biographical Essays. By Charles W. Pearson. Boston: Sherman, French & Co. 260 pp. $1.25.

Life and To-Morrow. By John Oliver Hobbes. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company. 297 pp. $1.50.

The Scarecrow. By Percy Mackaye. Macmillan. 179 pp. $1.25.

The Bible of Nature. By J. Arthur Thomson. Scribner. 248 pp. $1.

Charles the Bold. By Ruth Putnam. Putnam. 484 pp., ill. $1.50.

The City of Delight. By Elizabeth Miller. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company. 448 pp., ill. $1.50.

The Boys of the Old Glee Club. By James Whitcomb Riley. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company.

Home Problems from a New Standpoint. By Caroline L. Hunt. Boston: Whitcomb & Barrows. 145 pp. $1.

Long Life and How to Attain It. By Pearce Kintzing, M.D. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company. 285 pp. $1.

Don'ts for Bachelors and Old Maids. By Minna Thomas Antrim. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Company. 96 pp. $0.50.

Tamar Curze. By Berthe St. Luz. New York: R. F. Fenno & Co. 206 pp. $1.

The Pendleton Twins. By E. M. Jameson. Jennings & Graham. 303 pp., ill. $1.25.

Principles of Secondary Education, Vol. II. By Charles de Garmo. Macmillan. 200 pp. $1.

Sydney Carrington's Contumacy. By X. Lawson. New York: Frederick Pustet & Co. 350 pp. $1.25.

Sex of Offspring. By Frank Kraft, M.D. Cleveland: B. Barsuette. 112 pp. $2.

Ned: Nigger an' Gent'man. By Norman G. Kittrell. Washington: Neale Publishing Company. 257 pp. $1.50.

Meryl. By William T. Eldridge. Dodd, Mead & Co. 323 pp. $1.50.

The Heritage of the Kurts. By Björnstjerne Björnson. Macmillan. 2 vols., 458 pp. $2.50.

The Burning of Chelsea. By Walter M. Pratt. Boston: Sampson Publishing Company. 149 pp., ill. $1.50.

Paths to the Heights. By Sheldon Leavitt. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co. 264 pp. $1.

Jack Spurlock—Prodigal. By George Horace Lorimer. Doubleday, Page & Co. 333 pp., ill. $1.50.

Four Victorian Poets: A Study of Clough, Arnold, Rossetti, and Morris. By Stopford A. Brooke. Putnam. 297 pp. $1.75.

The Career of a Journalist. By William Salisbury. New York: B. W. Dodge & Co. 529 pp., ill. $1.50.

The Realm of Light. By Frank Hatfield. Boston: Reid Publishing Company. 430 pp.

Sources and Analogues of "A Midsummer Night's Dream." New York: Duffield & Co. 196 pp. $1.

The New Century Spelling Book. By A. N. McCallum and P. W. Horn. Silver, Burdett & Co. 176 pp.

The Unicorn from the Stars and Other Plays. By William B. Yeats and Lady Gregory. Macmillan. 210 pp. $1.50.

Harmony and Ear-Training. By W. A. White. Silver, Burdett & Co. 218 pp. $1.50.

Get-Rich-Quick Wallingford. By George R. Chester. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Company. 448 pp., ill. $1.50.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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From the Berlin Photograph Company

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THE SIGNING OF THE FAMOUS TREATY OF BERLIN, JULY 13, 1878.

(From Anton von Werner's painting of the Congress which sat in Bismarck's palace in Berlin from June 13 to July 13, 1878. Delegates were present from Great Britain, Russia, Germany, Austria-Hungary, France, Italy, and Turkey. Names of the delegates appear above, the actual signers of the treaty in italics. See "The Progress of the World" and special articles on pages 554 and 593.)

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. XXXVIII. NEW YORK, NOVEMBER, 1908. No. 5

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The Two Chief Topics.

Events in southeastern Europe have constituted the chief world topic of the past month. Americans have been greatly interested in these events, and have paid almost as much attention to them as if we were not in the closing weeks of the Presidential campaign. On subsequent pages of this monthly discussion of public affairs will be found an account of what has been going on in Balkan regions and an interpretation of the varied phases of the situation in that part of the world. Meanwhile, this number of the REVIEW will be in the hands of its readers in the days of doubt and suspense, claim and counter-claim that always precede the great quadrennial contest at the polls, which occurs this year on Tuesday, November 3.

An Undemonstrative Campaign.

The campaign now ending has again illustrated what we have so often pointed out,—namely, the general growth of our political harmony in this country, and the lessening of partisanship in its old-time intensity. With the fading out of clearly defined issues between the parties, there has been manifested everywhere for twenty years past a tendency toward the crystallizing of party machinery. The organizations have been controlled by professional politicians and dominated by bosses. This over-development of party machinery has been followed by its natural reaction. In State and municipal contests again and again the ruling machine has been overthrown, reform methods have been adopted, direct nomination by primaries has been substituted for boss-ruled conventions, and the habit of independence in voting has been greatly developed as a check upon the rigid methods of the party politicians. Furthermore, the reading habit has become almost universal, and the newspapers of the country are more independent than in former times. Thus the voters do their own thinking; and although public speaking is still influential, there is no longer a fraction as much reliance placed upon outward demonstrations and declamatory speaking as in the earlier periods of the country's political history. Although in the campaign of 1896 a good deal of feeling was aroused, it was sectional and economic rather than political or partisan.

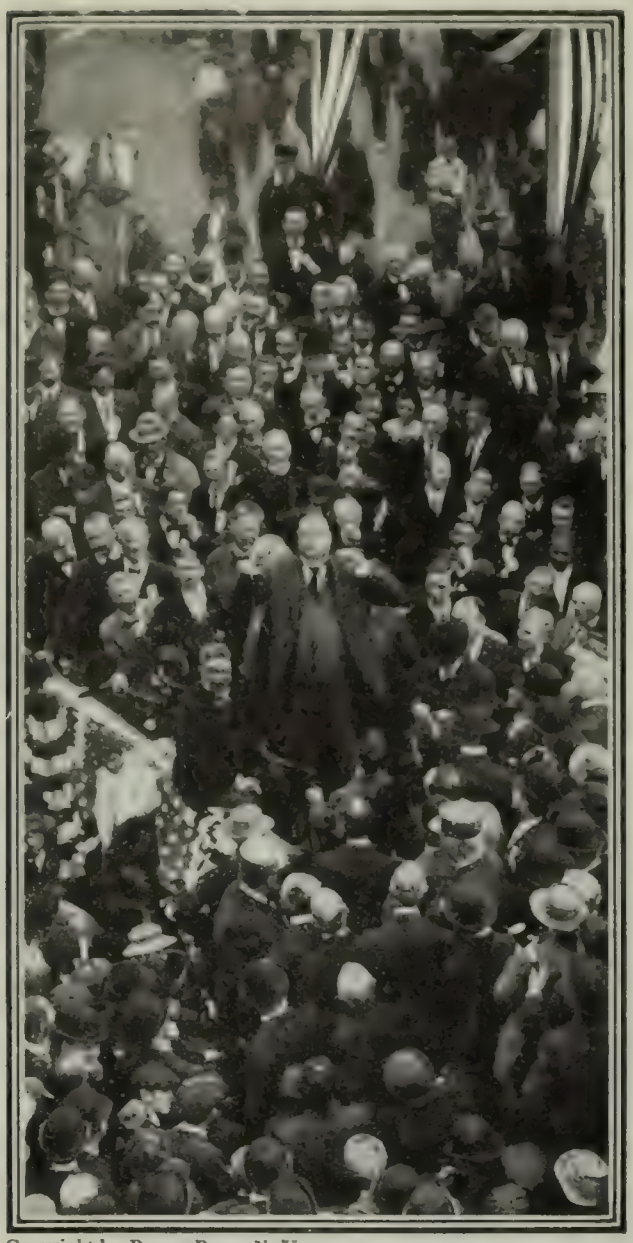
American Unity.

What the country really knows is that the great tasks of government must be carried on by intelligent and honest men, and that there ought not just now to be extreme differences of opinion between those who are rivals for the



AN INTERESTING SUBJECT.
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

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MR. TAFT SPEAKING TO AN OUT-OF-DOOR CROWD LAST MONTH.

chief place in the administration of national affairs. When the mere claptrap is eliminated from the various party platforms of the present year, and when the real sentiment of thoughtful men in the different parties is ascertained, the differences are not profound. No section or element of either the Republican or the Democratic party really demands or expects just now a revision of the tariff that shall be revolutionary or that shall upset established business conditions. The thoughtful men of both great parties declare that interstate commerce in its larger corporate forms must be kept firmly under the regulation and control of the national Government. When it comes to the details as to how such control shall be exercised, the men who are best fit to express an opinion are not actually separated by adherence to a Democratic as against a Republican policy. In private talk there seem to be few appreciable differences of opinion as between fair-minded Republicans and Democrats. A very intelligent English editor and publicist now in this country finds an amazing state of general harmony, and that the one question seems to be, which candidate will best carry on the business of the Government.

Qualities of the Taft Campaign.

The discussions of the campaign have not carried the mind of the country very far from points of view and conditions as they existed in July. No fundamental party issues have emerged, because none actually exist. Both great parties are more or less mixed up with the selfishness and false conservatism of private interests. The ablest and best men in both parties are sincerely devoted to the public welfare. Mr. Taft's participation in the campaign has taken him as far West as Mr. Bryan's home town of Lincoln, Neb., where he was received with great courtesy by men of all parties. He has been seen and heard in many cities and towns of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Nebraska, Kansas, and Missouri. He has achieved enhanced personal prestige by friendly but frank addresses in Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, and Virginia, and he has spoken in New York and other Eastern States. We were in great danger at one stage of the campaign of drifting away



TAFT COURTING THE SOLID SOUTH.
From the *Herald* (Washington).

from essential things and indulging in personalities more bitter than the facts could fully warrant. The courteous reception of Mr. Taft in the South helped not a little to bring the campaign back to a more fitting tone of dignity and fairness. Mr. Taft's speeches have endeavored to strengthen the impression that the Republican party is a more trustworthy instrument of government than the Democratic. His chief success as a speaker has consisted in the strengthened impression the country has gained of his own excellent qualities.

Taft's Speeches and Personality.

Mr. Taft has talked of the tariff, the regulation of railroads and trusts, the position of the courts with relation to labor, the unsettled problems of currency and banking, and various other public matters. Many of those who are going to vote for him do not agree with him upon one or another of these topics, and are not deeply impressed by his specific arguments. What they say is that Taft is a man of great intelligence, fine sincerity, unblemished honor, and almost unequaled public experience, with a well-nigh ideal fitness to occupy the White House at the present time and carry on the business that belongs to the office of the chief magistrate of this country. They hold that legislative matters in any case will have to be fought out in Congress. The Republican party as a whole feels that it has a candidate worthy in character and record of its best traditions. This feeling about Mr. Taft seems to have grown steadily throughout the campaign. Among the Republican orators none has more sharply defined the matters really to be taken into account this year than Senator Beveridge and Governor Hughes. The Governor of New York made some exceedingly taking speeches in the Middle West, while Senator Beveridge made strong speeches at strategic points all the way from New York to the Pacific Coast and back by another route to his own State of Indiana for the closing days of the campaign.

Bryan's Splendid Fight.

Mr. Bryan, on the Democratic side, has been the star campaigner, showing his old-time physical endurance, and even more than his old-time skill and attractiveness as a debater. He has spoken for tariff reform, for consistent and thorough control of corporations, the guarantee of bank deposits, a change of federal practice in the matter of injunctions



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MR. TAFT AS HE HAS BEEN SEEN BY MANY THOUSANDS OF HIS FELLOW CITIZENS ON THE PLATFORM OF HIS CAMPAIGN CAR.



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MR. TAFT SPEAKING IN A RAILROAD STATION.

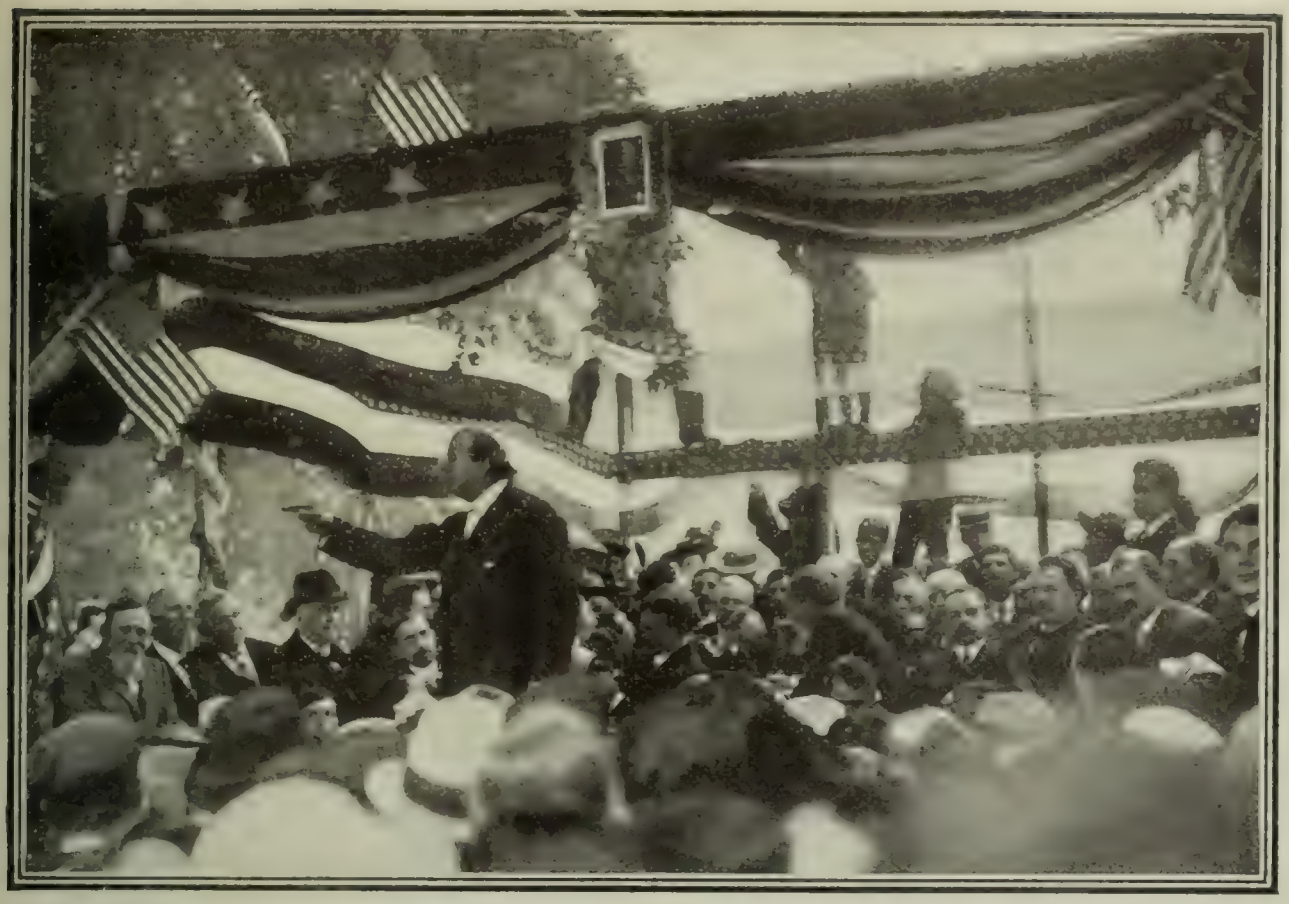
against workingmen's strikes, and so on. The country does not seem inclined to believe that the guarantee of bank deposits is properly a national party issue at this time. The Republicans have had the best of the argument in discussing the feasibility of such a scheme. When it comes to the matter of injunctions and the labor question, Mr. Taft has spoken out of his experience as a judge with sincerity and frankness. In no case would Congress be likely to make any change in the laws affecting this subject that would go beyond what Mr. Taft regards as feasible and proper. If Mr. Taft should be elected, there will be a special session of the new Congress which is to be chosen at the pending election almost immediately after the inauguration in March.

The Tariff Outlook.

If Mr. Bryan is elected, the Senate will remain Republican and the House will probably be quite evenly divided. It is not likely that Mr. Bryan would call an extra session to consider the tariff, and it would seem that some of the ultra high protectionists are inclined to favor Mr. Bryan's election on the ground that in such a case nothing could be accomplished for several years toward a modification of the Dingley schedules. If Mr. Taft should be elected, the attempt would be made to give the country a more scientific and business-like tariff law on the plan of maximum and minimum rates, the lower rates to be given to countries which are in a position to treat us in the corresponding manner. The South, which forms the one large and certain factor in the Democratic party, is growing so fast in the variety and extent of its manufactures that it no longer opposes the protectionist policy as strongly as it formerly did when its industrial character was almost wholly agricultural. The other most important single element in the Democratic party is Tammany Hall, which controls the Democratic party in the great State of New York. Unless New York should give its electoral vote to Mr. Bryan, there would not seem to be much chance of defeating Mr. Taft. But it must be remembered that the dominant factors in New York Democracy have no conviction upon the tariff question, and are not, indeed, as likely to be in favor of thorough tariff reform as are the Republicans of the West. Thus conditions are such that the Democratic party can no longer wage a consistent and powerful fight against the Republican doctrine of a protective tariff. The tariff is a business man's question, and various associations of manufacturers, merchants, and other business men are studying it either as respects particular schedules or else as regards its general character. It will not be possible to revise the tariff without some very sharp controversies; but these disputes do not seem likely to produce cleavage upon the old-time party lines. The Republicans are more likely to revise the tariff than are the Democrats, and neither party at present is likely to go very far toward the policy of a tariff for revenue only.

Parties and the Budget.

When it comes to extravagance of expenditure, the Democrats attack the Republicans severely; but the things that are demanded in the Democratic platform would cost the country



MR. BRYAN AS HE APPEARED DURING HIS MARVELOUS SPEAKING CAMPAIGN.

quite as much as those that the Republicans stand for, and there does not seem any marked choice between the two parties in this regard. Certainly the men responsible for the Roosevelt Administration are justified in saying that they have tried hard to justify expenditure by efficiency, and to give good results where public money is used. Thus the expenditure at Panama is more efficient than it would be under private contractors, and the same thing is eminently true of the work on the Government's irrigation projects. Mr. Roosevelt's Administration has not been a scandalous one, but, on the contrary, has been one that the country ought to be proud of in its high average of public spirit, honesty, and freedom from the taint of corruption or so-called "graft." The Republicans continue to spend a great deal of money for pensions, but the Democratic platform endorses such expenditure and attempts to outbid the Republicans for the vote of the veterans.

Would Bryan Prosecute Trusts?

When it comes to the country's further policy as regards the control of railroads and industrial corporations, most sincere and thoughtful men are of opinion that Congress ought to take prompt action, so that a better law than the Sherman Anti-Trust law might guide the executive in its duties. The Democratic platform lays down the principle that any corporation doing half of the business of the country in its particular line ought to be restrained from increasing the volume of its trade. This magazine promptly pointed out the impossibility of any such method, and the leading Republican speakers have analyzed the proposition in order to show how completely it fails. The general spirit, however, of Mr. Bryan's contention is more understandable than his proposed remedies. He is thoroughly opposed to the existence of the great corporations known as trusts. He has failed to deal frankly with one very important practical question,—namely, what he would do about prosecuting trusts if he were President, under the laws as they now exist. It is to be inferred from things that he has said that he would bring suits against the Steel Corporation and a number of other large business concerns, on the ground that by reason of their magnitude, if for no other reason, their existence is in violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust law. A policy of wholesale prosecutions would be disturbing to business. In our opinion the tendency toward the large forms of corporate enterprise is natural and legitimate, and all that is needed

is public control and a legal remedy of a reasonable sort for any real wrong that such corporations may commit against the rights of others. Mr. Bryan labors under the advantages and at the same time the disadvantages of a man who has been a critic and an opposition orator, without any of the tempering responsibilities of office. He has been accustomed to approach subjects from the theoretical standpoint. This was true in his silver campaign of 1896, it was not less true in his anti-imperialism campaign of 1900, and it seems to be the case now in his position on economic and financial issues.

Bryan and New York Politics.

It would be fortunate if we could hold a Presidential election upon its own merits, and thus detach from it the State issues which are in many cases of extreme importance. It is, of course, possible for the voter in his polling booth to mark his ticket according to his liking; but it is not always easy to vote a split ticket, and the tendency is to accept the entire party column, especially as the ballot paper is arranged in the State of New York. Thus, in the Empire State, Mr. Bryan is at the mercy to a great extent of a situation created by Murphy and Conners, who control the Democratic organization. It is within reasonable bounds to say that these men have comparatively little interest in the national ticket, and very great interest in securing control of the State government. The things that they stand for and seek are not the things that Mr. Bryan's Western friends believe that he stands for or desires. Among thoughtful and public-spirited men there ought to be very little question as to what is the better choice in the field of New York State politics this year. Mr. Chanler, the Democratic nominee for Governor, is a man of sympathetic qualities and good standing, but he would seem to be in a false position, and he has wholly failed to meet Governor Hughes frankly in the discussion of State issues. In a general way he stands for what is called "personal liberty," and attacks what he calls "government by commission."

Hughes versus Chanler.

The personal-liberty matter has to do with the legislation against race-track gambling, which Governor Hughes forced to a successful passage, in accordance with the requirements of the State constitution. Again and again Mr. Chanler has been challenged to say whether or not he desires the repeal of this recent legislation. He had refused to answer, up to our going to press. "Government by commission" has practical reference to the public-utilities law under which the railroads, trolley lines, and other franchise-using corporations are brought under regulation through the agency of two commissions, one for the State at large and the other for New York City. These two boards have rendered excellent service thus far. Mr. Chanler would not say whether or not he would advocate the repeal of the law creating these boards, and would not say under what form he would seek to have the State exercise control over public-service corporations. Mr. Hughes returned from the West in order to spend the last three weeks of the campaign in his own State, and his spirited defense of his measures and methods as Governor was so effective that it seemed to be making votes for him every day. Earlier in the campaign it was the prevailing opinion that Taft would carry the State, but that Governor Hughes would be defeated. This opinion about the State situation, however, was rapidly changing as these



MR. CHANLER AS A CAMPAIGNER.

pages were closed for the press. Early in the campaign a clever cartoon raised the question, Will the Republicans find Governor Hughes an asset or a liability? The conclusive answer to this question must await the counting of the votes on November 3. But most of the Republicans who had been skeptical at first were of the opinion by the middle of October that Mr. Hughes had already shown himself to be a valuable asset. Mr. Bryan is not responsible for Murphy and Conners, but his party must face the fact that national victory depends upon the results in the State of New York, and that if that State goes Democratic, Murphy and Conners will claim all the credit and expect ample rewards.

Mr. Hearst's Attacks.

The most sensational incidents in the campaign have been due to the activities of Mr. William R. Hearst. In speaking for the Independence party, Mr. Hearst's attacks have been directed against both of the old parties, but particularly against the Democratic organization in the national campaign and in the State of New York. His disclosures led to the resignation of Governor Haskell, of Oklahoma, from his post as treasurer of the Democratic National Committee. Governor Haskell had been selected by Mr. Bryan as chairman of the committee on resolutions at the Denver convention, and it was said that he might have been made national chairman if he had not preferred the treasurership. It was also said that he was slated for the position of Secretary of the Treasury in case of Bryan's election. Mr. Hearst undertook to show that Haskell was an agent of the Standard Oil Company; and within a few days a number of statements of an uncomplimentary kind were made in different quarters regarding Mr. Haskell's former career as a promoter in Wall Street. The retirement of Haskell did not reflect in any way upon Mr. Bryan's sincerity and good faith, but it cast a very decided doubt upon his judgment as to the character and quality of his political associates.



Photograph by Brown Bros., N. Y.

GOVERNOR HUGHES IN A CHARACTERISTIC ATTITUDE.

The "Standard Oil" Letters.

Mr. Hearst's opportunities for assault were not confined to the record of Haskell, for various other Democratic leaders came in for his castigations, among whom were the bosses of the Democratic machine in the city and State of New York. He was ably seconded in these attacks by Mr. Clarence J. Shearn, the Independence party's candidate for the New York governorship. Mr. Hearst had come into possession of copies of a number of letters written by a high officer of the Standard Oil Company to various public men, especially United States Senators, together with their replies. These letters were served out at different times by Mr. Hearst,



GOVERNOR HUGHES SPEAKING IN WESTERN NEW YORK.

and their bearings were such as to give them a place of decided influence in the campaign. To the first of these letters, showing Senator Foraker to have received checks from the Standard Oil Company for legal or other services, reference was made in these pages last month.

Foraker and Taft.

The Democrats were rather too eager to make it appear that the Foraker letters were campaign ammunition as against Mr. Taft and the Republican cause. This fact led President Roosevelt to make a statement in the course of which he reproduced a letter written some months before the Chicago convention by Mr. Taft to a friend in Ohio, in which Mr. Taft absolutely refused to be a party to any compromise with the Foraker wing of the party in that State. It had seemed at one time as if Mr. Foraker might be able to prevent Taft's nomination; and it was proposed to pacify the Foraker supporters by agreeing to re-elect Mr. Foraker for another term in the Senate in consideration of their acquiescing in Mr. Taft's nomination for the Presidency. Mr. Roosevelt showed convincingly that Mr. Taft had not been making bargains; and Senator Foraker dropped quietly out of the campaign.

The Haskell Incident.

Mr. Roosevelt took up the charges against Haskell, in consequence of which Mr. Bryan came out in a letter to the President defending Haskell, and challenging Mr. Roosevelt to produce any evidence against the Oklahoma Governor. The President's reply was a very vigorous campaign document, and Mr. Haskell soon retired from the Democratic National Committee, declaring that he would bring suits against those who had defamed his character. Subsequently he served papers on Mr. Hearst in proceedings for slander. Little had been known by old-line Democrats about the Bryan man who had forged to the front in the new State of Oklahoma. The Oklahoma constitution has always been praised by Mr. Bryan, and Governor Haskell has been regarded as responsible for the many innovations in this remarkable document.

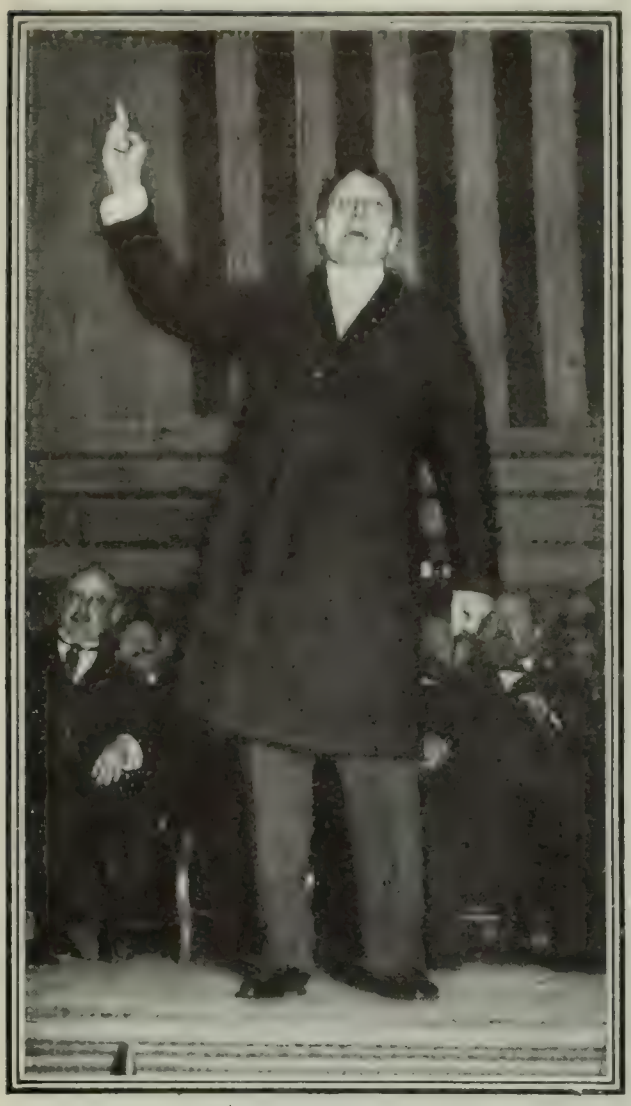


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PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AS HE LOOKED LAST MONTH.

The President in the Campaign.

There was a good deal of pressure brought to bear upon President Roosevelt early in the campaign to make a few speeches, and while there is no law, either written or unwritten, against such participation in the campaign by the President of the country, it was Mr. Roosevelt's opinion that it would be better to follow what has been the general custom. In many ways the President has helped to put vigor into the Taft campaign, and to make the high motives and untarnished character of the Republican candidate clear to the people of the country. He has been consulted about the conduct of the campaign, and has followed every step in its progress with his usual keenness of insight and unequaled talent for practical politics. He has been careful to allow Mr. Taft's personality to make its own impress upon the public, and has well known from the beginning that the foolish charge of Mr. Taft's being merely Roosevelt's candidate would answer itself. Mr. Roosevelt did not force Mr. Taft upon



MR. HEARST IN THE NEW YORK FIGHT.

the party, but rather in a sensible and proper way helped the party to reach a cordial and unanimous agreement upon the man best fitted to be the standard bearer. The Republican party is made up of strong men who do their own thinking, and select their own candidates, and President Roosevelt could not force a nominee upon the party against its preferences. It was not Mr. Roosevelt who tried to do the forcing, but rather the coalition of powerful political leaders who attempted in vain to thwart the will of the party and prevent Mr. Taft's nomination. For years Mr. Roosevelt has said that if either William H. Taft or Elihu Root became President we would have in that office a great statesman of the class of Washington and Lincoln. It is a silly and ill-informed person who supposes that Mr. Roosevelt would expect either to dictate the policies of his successor or to bring any undue influence to bear upon his mind. The whole course of the campaign has shown how singularly untrammeled is Mr. Taft's position.

Campaign Contributions.

Apart from those unpleasant recriminations that grew out of the series of Standard Oil letters, the chief topic of a disagreeable and personal sort in the campaign has been that of contributions to the party funds. The subject has had a great deal more attention than it merited. Neither party has had a large fund this year, and the Republicans in particular have learned how to work effectively with much less money than in former elections. The Democrats, to begin with, are in possession of the "Solid South," where no effort has to be made to get out the vote, and no money is needed. They usually have to mass their effort in a few States which are regarded as doubtful. They usually have plenty of money in the State of New York, because Tammany Hall can always lay abundant tribute upon various sources of revenue. The Democrats had taken to themselves great credit because of Mr. Bryan's promise at the opening of the campaign that contributions would be published on Octo-

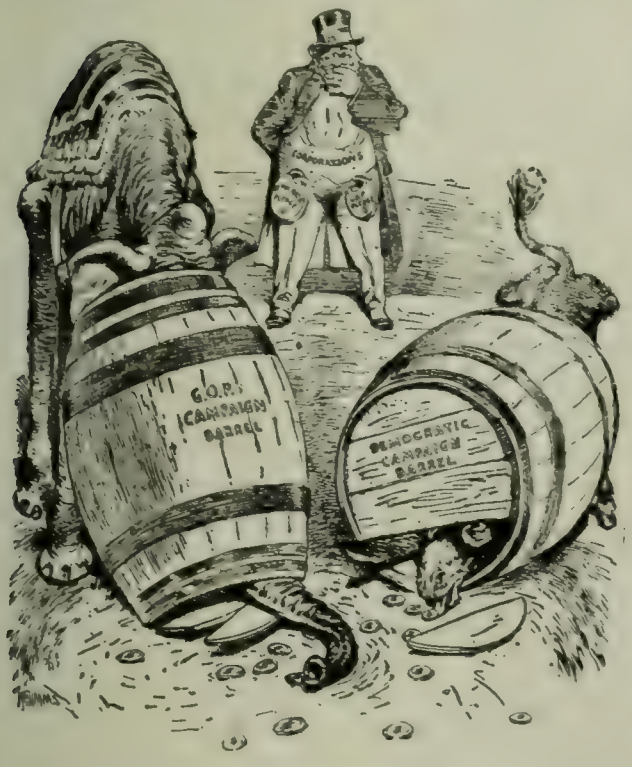


MR. C. J. SHEARN, OF NEW YORK.
(Candidate for Governor on the Independence party ticket.)

ber 15. The names of the larger givers were announced on that date, and the sum total of $248,567 was acknowledged. While there is no sufficient reason to assert that any bad faith was shown in this plan of publicity, it is obvious enough that ample ways could have been found for evasion. Thus many men prefer to contribute to State or county campaign funds, which can easily be managed in such a way as to count toward exactly the same expenditures as if they had contributed to the National Committee. Yet no attempt was made to give publicity to such contributions. Furthermore, there are many ways by which donors can pay directly for items of political expenditure without passing the money through any of the campaign committees, whether local or national. Thus, it is very customary for donors to put contributions directly into the hands of State or Congressional candidates to enable them to carry on their canvasses, and such gifts can usually escape notice altogether.

Publicity and Evasion.

The names of many men who might have been expected to make the largest Democratic gifts did not appear in the list published on October 15. An easy form of evasion, of course, would be to give advance promises or assurances, but to withhold payments until the closing days of the campaign, or even until after election, since many bills can be held over,—such as those for printing or payment of speakers,—until the close of the campaign. The Republican National Committee has promised to give publicity to its receipts and expenditures in a sworn statement after election, according to the terms of the New York State law. Generally speaking, the corporations as such have evidently not been contributing to either campaign fund, and corporation officials in their capacity as citizens have not been giving extravagant sums. Some prominent business men have given generously toward Mr. Bryan's election, and a larger number have contributed toward the expenses of the Taft campaign. There is no mystery about the uses to which the money is put. There are bills for printing and advertising, for the expenses of speakers, for meetings, for office rent and salaries, and, last, but not least, for providing watchers at the polls, and for vehicles and other means to give the old and the infirm a chance to cast their ballots. The Republicans have been compelled through lack of large central funds to develop the principle of local home rule and financial independence in States and localities. There has been very little money for bunting or brass bands or club uniforms or red fire. The public welfare is not dependent upon large campaign funds, and no great injury has resulted from the poverty of party treasuries, although the Taft forces could have accomplished more energetic work of an entirely legitimate sort if their revenues had been more generous. The work of Mr. Hitchcock and his associates has been systematic and intelligent, and its effects were becoming more apparent every day as the month of October advanced. The Democratic campaign, on the other hand, has been carried on with much greater enthusiasm and ability than that of four years ago, and its press management has been exceptionally alert and capable. So much opprobrium has in the past been cast upon the giving of money for political purposes that many excellent citizens have this year shrunk from giving anything at all, because they objected to the publication of their names. As a matter of fact, it is entirely honorable and proper to give reasonably generous sums toward the expenses of a campaign, and experience shows that it is better upon the whole that gifts should be made openly than secretly. Where corrupt organizations like Tammany Hall participate in politics, it is obvious that



"FODDER LOW!"

From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia).



EUGENE V. DEBS BESIDE HIS FAMOUS "RED SPECIAL."

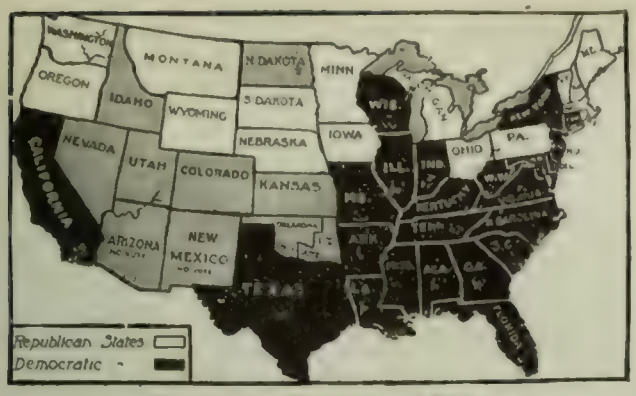
no way can ever be found to compel a really honest disclosure of receipts and expenditures.

Forecasts of the Result.

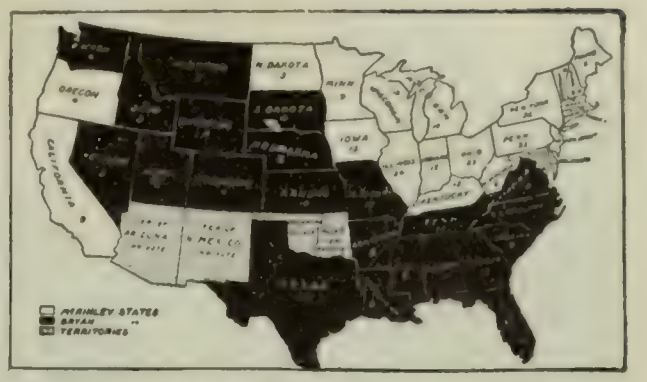
As the end of the campaign approached, the belief that Mr. Taft would be elected was stronger than it had been in September. The activity and success of the Socialist campaign were admitted on all hands, so that the article contributed to the September number of this magazine by Mr. Robert Hunter was fully borne out by all the visible signs. The Socialists had thought that they might poll a million votes, and as the campaign reached its climax there were expert observers who thought that the vote for Debs might go far beyond the million mark. It was generally admitted that the Debs vote would be drawn more largely from Bryan than from Taft. The work of Mr. Hisgen, Mr. Hearst, Mr. Shearn, and the Independence party leaders, especially in the State of New York, was far more effective against the Democrats than against the Republicans. Mr. Chanler, the Democratic candidate for Governor, was mercilessly assailed by Shearn and Hearst, while not a word was said by these gentlemen against the character or conduct of Governor Hughes. That a great mass of workingmen in the State of New York would vote for Bryan was beyond question, while, generally speaking, the regular Democrats were supporting their ticket. Many well-known individuals, however, of Democratic proclivities were out for Taft, and, furthermore, the registration results were favorable to the Republicans. The new registration law of New York is so exacting that it would seem to have frightened away the gangs of repeaters usually colonized by Tammany in the lodging houses of the lower East Side. The consequence was a decided falling off in the registration totals for the Democratic parts of the city, and a relative gain for the Republican districts.

Elections in the States.

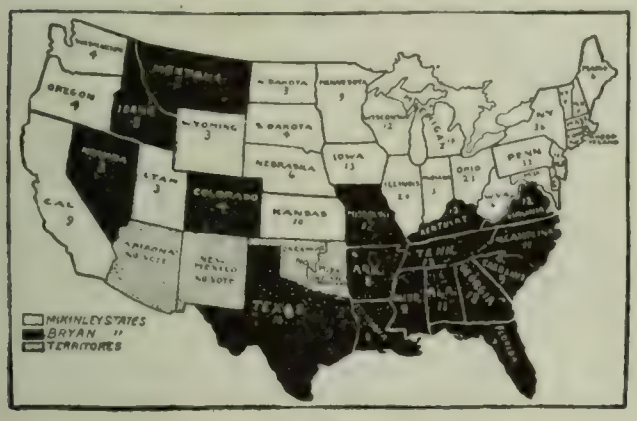
All these things and many others serve to confirm the belief that Taft would carry the State of New York. And reports from the rest of the country also made it seem certain enough that without New York Bryan could not hope to win the election. Yet the Democrats have been justified in holding that they had a good fighting chance, and nobody can be sure of the results until the votes are counted on the night of November 3. As a matter of convenient reference we print small maps showing at a glance how the States were divided between the two parties in the last four Presidential elections. It is to be remembered that besides Presidential electors there are to be chosen on November 3 the members of the Sixty-first Congress. While the Republicans expect to have a majority in the new House, they admit that they will lose some seats. State elections have already been held in Oregon, Maine, and Vermont, and partially in Arkansas and Georgia. In twenty-eight other States there are State officers to be chosen; in many, but not in all, there will be elections for governors, and in many also there will be elections for legislatures. The terms of thirty-one United States Senators, nineteen of whom are Republicans and twelve Democrats, will expire on the 4th of next March. There are Senatorial



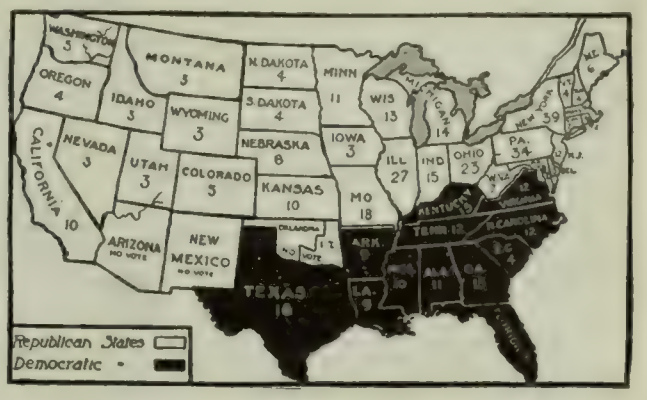
Cleveland—Harrison, 1892.



McKinley—Bryan, 1896.



McKinley—Bryan, 1900.



Roosevelt—Parker, 1904.

IN THE ABOVE DIAGRAMS THE WHITE INDICATES STATES CARRIED BY REPUBLICANS, THE BLACK BY DEMOCRATS. IN 1892, WHEN CLEVELAND WAS ELECTED, FIVE WESTERN STATES WERE CARRIED BY POPULISTS,—NAMELY, COLORADO, IDAHO, KANSAS, NEVADA, AND NORTH DAKOTA.

contests pending in many States in connection with the contests for the State legislatures. There is a marked tendency toward bringing the election of Senators, either through direct primaries or in some other way, more directly before the voters at large. Besides the State elections there are thousands of county and local contests to be decided on November 3.

A Year After the Panic.

This magazine goes to press just a year after the breaking out of the panic of 1907, resulting in the suspension of fifteen banks in New York and Brooklyn, and of several trust companies, one of them with deposits of nearly $50,000,000. On October 25, 1907, it would have been difficult to find a man with the clear vision and courage to predict that after one year all of these banks would have paid their depositors in full, except two, and those just in the act of furnishing a complete satisfaction of their deposit liabilities. But such is the result of the vigorous and intelligent work of rehabilitation. From the purely monetary point of view, it was a very great panic, and this result is a very great record. This anniversary month sees, too, the dissolution of the Committee of Five, which last fall supplied $30,000,000 to the several trust companies which were about to go under before the attack of excited and frightened depositors. All the loans made to these institutions by the committee have been repaid in full. Turning from the money houses to industrial operation, as gauged by railroad activity, the number of idle cars, which had risen to the enormous total of 413,000 on April 29, was reduced to less than 150,000 this October. A chief reason for this very sudden re-employment of cars was the unprecedentedly sharp movement of grain in September. With stock at the grain centers low, with a shortage in Europe, and a fine new 1908 wheat crop larger than last year's, there was logically a very rapid improvement in activity and gross earnings for the railroads in September. General imports through New York increased $6,000,000 over September. Bank exchanges increased 5 per cent. in September. But, perhaps, the most vital industrial suggestion of the year comes in the gradual turning of the tide of emigration. Through the past year the swarm of outward-bound European-born workers has fallen off, until, in September, the immigrants exceeded the outgo by a re-



RUIN WROUGHT BY FOREST FIRES IN NORTHERN NEW YORK STATE,—FREIGHT TRAIN DESTROYED.

spectable majority. The old country has decided that work will again be easy to get in America.

The Bank Guarantee Plan.

At the meeting of the American Bankers' Association in Denver, in October, the chief topic of discussion was Mr. Bryan's plan for the Government guarantee of deposits, through taxing all the banks to pay the depositors of any institutions that are unable to pay. While this project has probably already had more attention than it deserved, as a leading political issue in a Presidential campaign, it is interesting to find the unanimity of feeling among the practical bankers at Denver that the scheme is not only unjust and beyond the proper scope of government,—matters in which bankers might not be the best authorities,—but that it is utterly ineffective for the specific purpose in hand, and promises, indeed, an invitation to the very troubles that the plan aims to obviate. Practically to a man, the Denver convention agreed that the withdrawal, through the pool guarantee, of final responsibility from a particular bank, and from the people who run it, would offer the greatest possible temptation to loose methods and to loose bankers. Nor would there, in the opinion of these business men, be the incentive for the customers of a bank to check up its methods of business. This check of local public opinion and resulting patronage or lack of patronage must obviously be the fundamental controlling power over too-ambitious or unscrupulous banking.

Destructive Forest Fires.

The forest fires of August and September, to which reference was made in our last number, proved to be the first of a long series of like disasters. Rains fell in some parts of the country and checked the devastation for a time, but the long-continued drought had left the timber lands in such a condition that nothing short of a thorough drenching could be a safeguard against further ravaging by the flames. In many of the most extensive forest areas, from New York to Minnesota, no such drenching came. In October, destructive fires spread rapidly over whole counties, licking up towns in their progress, and devouring human lives as well as property. In the State of Michigan (upper and lower peninsula) the loss is estimated at not less than $10,000,000. But no estimate can express the actual wreckage of business interests and the setbacks to our national prosperity that have directly resulted from this awful waste.

Real Trouble in the Balkans.

The real "trouble in the Balkans," predicted every spring for a quarter of a century, has come at last. The international political drama last month in which Bulgaria, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and Servia figured as the chief actors, with Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, and Italy actively shifting the scenery in the background, has been the most nerve-straining and portentous that Europe has witnessed for a generation or more. A strike on a comparatively unknown railway line in southeastern Europe and the omission of the name of the petty political agent of a small principality from the list of those invited to a diplomatic dinner in Constantinople, these two insignificant happenings, late in September, put in motion a chain of events that have already altered the map of Europe as it has been known for more than a quarter of a century, and may yet precipitate a general European war.

The Strike on the Oriental Railway.

The Oriental Railway, an enterprise in which the Constantinople government has a proprietary interest, extending from Turkey proper across Eastern Rumelia into Bulgaria, and forming part of the trunk-line from Vienna to Constantinople, was completely paralyzed by a strike of several weeks, beginning early in September. Bulgarian troops, "in order to prevent violence, provisionally occupied" that part of the line in Bulgarian territory. When this military occupation had lasted a fortnight, although the strike had been suppressed, the Turkish Chargé d'Affaires at Sofia, the Bulgarian capital, announced to Prince Ferdinand's government that the continued control of the line by Bulgarian troops was not only a violation of Bulgaria's agreement with the railway company, but an infringement of Turkey's proprietary rights as set forth in the treaty of Berlin. A similar announcement was also made to the embassies of the powers at Constantinople. The Bulgarian Government announced that although "the situation requires that it shall keep the Oriental Railway at present in its own hands, it has no intention whatsoever of infringing the rights of ownership or of injuring the material rights of any one." It declared, further, that it would deal in the matter directly with the railway company, not with the Turkish government. It should be said that Bulgaria's radical action in this railroad matter has been condemned by Europe generally.

The Slight to Bulgaria's Agent.

Meanwhile, the list of invited guests to a diplomatic dinner in Constantinople had been issued without the name of Dr. J. S. Gueshov, Bulgarian agent at the Turkish capital. When the government of Prince Ferdinand protested against this omission the Turkish Foreign Minister, Tewfik Pasha, replied that the Porte intended no offense, but that Bulgaria was a vassal state of Turkey, and its agent at Constantinople, therefore, not a real diplomatic representative who could properly be present at the function in question. Whether the continued Bulgarian occupation of the railway line was due to pique over this slight to Bulgaria's agent, or whether the agent's name was omitted from the dinner list,—perhaps at the suggestion of some other European power,—as a pointed reminder to Bulgaria of her state of vassalage to Turkey,—these are matters of speculation. If, as is reported, Tewfik Pasha desired to "crystallize the situation," he certainly succeeded.

Revolution by Diplomatic Note.

These minor developments of the last days of September were followed with dramatic swiftness by other developments that startled the world. On October 3 it was stated in the press dispatches that Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria-Hungary, through his Premier and Minister of Foreign Affairs, Baron von Aerenthal, had sent personal autograph letters to the heads of all the great powers of Europe, the letter to President Fallières of France being delivered first. In these letters, we are told, the Austro-Hungarian monarch declared that the time had come for his government to formally extend its sovereignty over the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina,—Turkish territory which, by the terms of the treaty of Berlin, had been turned over to Austria-Hungary for occupation and administration, remaining, however, officially under the suzerainty of the Porte. But still more startling news was coming: Before the consummation of this annexation Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria, amid ceremony and parade at Tirnova, the ancient capital of the country, announced complete independence from Turkish suzerainty, and proclaimed himself "Czar of All the Bulgars." This was on October 5. Two days later the Hellenic inhabitants of the island of Crete, nine-tenths of the entire population, profiting by Turkey's extremity, suddenly repudiated Ottoman suzerainty, and proclaimed themselves



THE BALKANS AND TURKEY, SHOWING THEIR GEOGRAPHICAL RELATIONS TO THE REST OF EUROPE.

(The entire region known as the Balkans, with Turkey and including, beside the Ottoman Empire, Bulgaria, Roumania, Servia, Montenegro, Bosnia, and Herzegovina, Dalmatia, Greece, and the Austro-Hungarian provinces of Transylvania, Croatia, and Slavonia, has an aggregate size almost exactly the same as that of the State of Texas. Turkey in Europe is the largest division, and the smallest is Herzegovina. The shaded portion of the map, embracing the Turkish vilayets of Kossovo, Monastir, and Salonika, makes up what is known to the outside world as Macedonia.)

united to Greece. Within another forty-eight hours the Servians had been wrought up to a dangerous pitch of anti-Austrian war fever over the fate of their compatriots in the annexed provinces, the little principality of Montenegro had professed its intention of joining Servia in case of a war with Austria, large portions of the Roumanian, Bulgarian, and Turkish armies had been mobilized, ominous signs of disaffection had come from Albania and Macedonia, and all the chancelleries of Europe had been plunged into a state of the direst apprehension of a general continental war, while the stock markets of the great capitals were depressed to an extent not experienced since the days of England's war with the Boers.

The Bulgarian Coup.

It was in the announcement of Bulgarian independence that the world has been most actively interested. Ever since the sixth century, when the Hunnish tribe from the Volga (the Volgarians, or Bulgarians) settled in the region which is now the country of "Czar" Ferdinand and assumed Slavonic language and customs, becoming, in fact, virtually a Slavonic people, Bulgaria has been one of the most fiercely contested sections of the Balkan battlefield. The genesis of autonomous Bulgaria, the character of its ruler, and the problems that face him are set forth on another page this month by Mr. Alfred Stead, who is at present Roumanian Consul-General in London, and whose knowledge of Balkan conditions is thorough and unusual in a man of western nationality. It has been realized by the governments of Europe that ever since the treaty of Berlin fixed the status of the principality as subject to Turkish rule, requiring it to pay an annual tribute, such a sturdy, independent, democratic, and warlike people as the Bulgarians would submit to these conditions only so long as they felt unable to change them. For thirty years Bulgaria has been patiently and unswervingly working and hoping for the moment which came last month, when she felt herself strong enough to throw off the suzerainty of the hated Turk.

Splendid Growth of Bulgaria.

The tribute imposed by the treaty of Berlin Bulgaria never paid. Although dominated alternately by Austria and Russia, and made a plaything of the international rivalry of the continent, she has developed herself economically and in a military sense, has constantly stretched the



THE GERMAN KAISER AS HE LOOKED LAST MONTH.
(Europe generally regards him as the power behind the scenes in the Balkan crisis.)

Berlin mandate, and waxed prosperous and powerful. In 1885 Servia was defeated and virtually all of Eastern Rumelia incorporated with Bulgaria, the annexed province, however, continuing to render tribute to Turkey. Bulgaria insists that even in the face of combined Europe she will maintain her independent sovereignty. The importance of her position as key to the Balkan situation is emphasized by the fact that pending the agreement of the great powers no nation (we are writing in the middle of October) has yet recognized Bulgaria's new status. That the uncertainty of her foreign relations is causing her trouble is shown by the popular impatience as reflected in the Bulgarian press and by the reluctance of the government to impose new taxes, which will be absolutely necessary for the maintenance on a war footing of all the nation's military forces, the settlement of the Rumelian tribute, and the financial compensation which the powers will almost certainly compel her to make to Turkey. Meanwhile, payment of the Eastern Rumelian tribute has been stopped. The Bulgarian court and army were moved into this province, and from its capital, Philippopolis, Ferdinand has been watching Turkey.



Herbert Henry Asquith, Premier of Great Britain. Georges Clèmenceau, Premier of France. Count Isvolski, Russian Foreign Minister. Prince Bernard von Bülow, German Chancellor.

THE BRITISH, FRENCH, RUSSIAN, AND GERMAN STATESMEN WHO ARE DIRECTING THE "HIGHER POLITICS" IN THE BALKAN CRISIS.

Will Ferdinand Attack Turkey?

In the official statement of Bulgaria's position issued by her Minister of Foreign Affairs, Poprikov, the world was informed:

> Bulgaria has no aggressive aims. She has given regular form to a situation that already existed *de facto*. We believe that the powers will approve the proclamation of Bulgaria to be an independent kingdom. This act need in no way trouble the peace of Europe or of the Balkan countries.

The real element of danger on the Bulgarian side lies in the excitement of a people possessed of a magnificent army and tempted to make use of it by a state of things across an imaginary frontier. As we go to press the newspapers are reporting constant clashes between Bulgarian and Turkish patrols. Much of Ferdinand's splendid army is close to the border, whence it can easily see into Macedonia, which the Bulgarians have long referred to as their "promised land." One report had it that a Bulgarian attack on Turkey was prevented only by the openly made threat of a Russian invasion of King Ferdinand's domain.

The Berlin Treaty Thirty Years After.

It has been well said that the treaty of Berlin showed much more regard for the interests of the powers that made it than for the national aspirations and even vital needs of those affected by it. Almost contemptuous of the ambitions of the various Balkan states, this historic compact, imposed on Russia and Turkey by Bismarck's cynical ambition and Disraeli's challenge of the Muscovite empire, carefully provided for the commercial profit of the chief signatories, and ruthlessly suppressed the national desires of almost all the Balkan states. Russia, triumphant over Turkey after the war of 1878, with her victorious armies within a day's march of Constantinople, was held back by the fears and jealousies of combined Europe, and the treaty of San Stefano (March, 1878), which registered her triumph and would have made her rich and powerful in the Near East, was torn up by the diplomats of the rest of the Continent, who substituted for it the now famous treaty of Berlin, agreed upon in the German capital in July of the same year. Its general provisions as affecting the general European situation were:

> The establishment of the independence of Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro; the creation of the province of Eastern Rumelia, "with administrative autonomy and a Christian governor, but under the control of Turkey"; a gradual extension of the Greek frontier (carried out in 1881); the mandate to Austria to occupy and administer the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which, however, were to remain nominally subject to Turkey; the cession by Turkey to Russia of valuable territory, including the cities of Kars and Batoum; the cession to Great Britain of control of the Island of Cyprus, nominally subject to Turkey but giv-

ing the British Empire virtual control of the Levant; the carrying out of certain legal reforms in Crete; the granting of full religious liberty to the Christian subjects of the Sultan, and finally, the "erection" of the principality of Bulgaria as an autonomous state tributary to the Porte, but with a Christian governor and a national militia. The three Turkish vilayets,—Kossovo (the greater part), Monastir (all), and Salonika (all),—known to the western world as Macedonia, which were occupied by the Russian troops during the war of 1878, were handed back to Turkey without reserve.

What the Treaty Failed to Do.

The Berlin treaty left Turkey in Europe about the size of the State of Missouri, mutilated and uncertain of her status, undoubtedly more dissatisfied than if the apparently harsher terms of the treaty of San Stefano had been permitted to remain. In most of the provisions of this highly artificial compromise Europe laid up for itself endless troubles and uncertainties which have disturbed almost every year of the past thirty. The anomalous status of the Bulgarians, a Slavonic people, permitted to choose a Christian governor but pay tribute to the Ottoman Sultan; the economic administrative control by Austria of the two provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, inhabited largely by a Slavonic race, but nominally subject to Turkey, and the highly inflammable character of the racial and religious mixture in Macedonia,—these conditions could not be expected to remain permanently as the Berlin treaty provided.

The Expected Happened.

Indeed, they were not expected so to remain, and the assertion of Bulgarian independence and the incorporation of Bosnia and Herzegovina with Austria-Hungary were the inevitable outcome of the Berlin compromise, inevitable just so soon as there should be the least weakening of the murderous and sickening despotism of Abdul Hamid. Bulgaria could not be expected to keep a compact to which she was not a party. As for the perfidious "treaty breaking" of Austria, the fact seems to be forgotten,—but a fact, nevertheless, it is,—that almost every provision of the Berlin treaty had been openly and cynically broken by almost every one of the signers years before Austria "annexed" the two provinces. In 1880 Montenegro got Dulcigno. The next year Greece forced the Porte to cede large sections of Thessaly and Epirus. In the same year Roumania became a kingdom instead of a principality, and Servia followed suit. Four years later Eastern Rumelia revolted and Bulgaria calmly annexed it. A decade later the Turk took his turn at violating by massacring the Armenians. All of these developments were in direct violation of the Berlin compact. Why, then, insist so strenuously upon observing the letter of the treaty now?



THE AUSTRIAN AND ITALIAN FOREIGN MINISTERS IN CONFERENCE.

(Baron von Aerenthal, Austrian foreign minister,—on the right,—and Signor Tittoni, head of the foreign office of Italy, in friendly conference at the Italian statesman's villa near Rome.)

The Effect in Turkey

Signs have not been wanting that the substitution of a liberal régime at Constantinople for the old barbarous autocracy was not acceptable to all the powers of Europe, and it has been confidently asserted that all the developments of the past few weeks have been merely part of a great conspiracy engineered from several European capitals, particularly Berlin, to discredit the administration of the Young Turks. It is impossible to withhold a certain admiration from the new Turkish administration and to hope that the present government will not be in any way overthrown, nor its existing liberal tendencies curbed. Already a decided impetus has been given to trade under the new administration, new financial enterprises have been formed, agriculture has taken a new start; and the business interests that formerly dreaded the government are now looking to it as their protector.

What Will the Young Turks Do?

The reform government at Constantinople, through the Grand Vizier, Kiamil Pasha, at once protested to the powers signatory to the treaty of Berlin against the action of Austria and Bulgaria. It is undoubtedly the desire of the Young Turkish party, which has so far maintained itself with great restraint and dignity, to avoid war. Turkey, however, is convinced that Austria, backed by Germany, encouraged Bulgaria to declare independence in order to compromise the new constitutional system. The government at Constantinople not only protested to the great powers not directly interested, but to Bulgaria and Austria and to Greece in the matter of the action taken by Crete. Although the warlike fervor of the Turks has been aroused to the highest pitch, the government has so far been careful to abstain from any overt act, the people contenting themselves with a vigorous and thorough boycott of Austrian products. The Porte's circular to the powers, complaining of Bulgaria's military activities says:

Not to give occasion for acts contrary to humanity, the Sublime Porte, while awaiting an equitable decision by the conference, declares that it will abstain from placing the imperial armies on a war footing.

Austria Annexes Two Provinces.

Following with dramatic swiftness upon the announcement of Bulgarian independence came the formal proclamation (October 6) and practical annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austria-Hungary, with a pledge of a constitution guaranteeing civic rights and a representative assembly. The next day, in a rescript to Baron von Aerenthal, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Emperor Francis Joseph said:

Being imbued with the unalterable conviction that the lofty, civilizing, and political objects for which the Austro-Hungarian monarchy undertook the occupation and administration of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the result which that administration has already obtained with costly sacrifices, can be permanently assured only by granting the constitutional institutions corresponding to their needs—institutions for the setting up of which the establishment of a clear and unequivocal legal position for the two provinces forms an indispensable condition,—I extend my sovereignty over Bosnia and Herzegovina and, at the same time, bring into force in those provinces the rules of succession applying to my house. As a demonstration of the peaceful purposes which have led me to this immutable decree, I at the same time order the evacuation of the Sanjak of Novibazar by the troops of my army stationed therein.

The Proclamation to the People.

At the same time a proclamation was issued to the inhabitants of the two provinces, the substance of which was as follows:

We deem that the moment has come to give the inhabitants of the two lands new proof of our trust in their political maturity in order to raise Bosnia and Herzegovina to a higher level of political life. We are resolved to grant both lands constitutional institutions that will take account of prevailing conditions and general interests so as to create a legal basis for the representation of their wishes and needs. You shall henceforth have a voice when decisions are taken concerning affairs of your home, which, as hitherto, will have a separate administration. . . . The inhabitants will thus share in all the benefits which the lasting confirmation of the present connection can offer. The new order of things will pledge that civilization and welfare will find a sure place in your homes. Among the many cares that surround our throne the care of your material and spiritual weal shall in the future not be the least. The exalted idea of equal rights for all before the law, a share in legislation and the administration of provincial affairs, equal protection for all religious creeds, for languages and racial idiosyncrasies, all these high possessions shall you enjoy. Freedom of the individual and the welfare of the whole will be the lodestar of our government in the two lands.

The Turkish flag was then lowered from the public buildings and the banner of Austria-Hungary raised, and the military immediately and quietly required to take the oath of allegiance to the Dual Monarchy. So thorough and effective has been Austria-Hungary's administration and assimilation of these two provinces since 1878 that this mere formal change of allegiance was really the only ceremony necessary for the organic union of the provinces with the empire itself.

Was it Treaty Breaking?

Despite the facts, already noted, that almost every provision of the Berlin treaty had already been broken openly and cynically by other powers, that the new act of Austria-Hungary changes nothing except the name of her relations to these provinces, and that in his autograph letters to the governors of the different European nations the Austrian Emperor had announced his intention of doing just this very thing, Austria's action occasioned a storm of protest, and was denounced in the press of almost all Europe, except that of Germany and Bulgaria, as well as largely in the American press, as being a perfidious violation of sacred obligations imposed by treaty. Indeed, it is the action of Austria in the Bosnia-Herzegovina matter, rather than Bulgaria's

coup or the action of Crete, that has precipitated the chain of events which at this writing is rapidly dividing the great powers of Europe into two opposing camps.

The Austrian Point of View.

It is generally held that since Austria's administration and control of the provinces were so completely beyond dispute she could have no valid reason for a more formal title; and, it is further contended, the peace-loving Francis Joseph in the last years of his long reign would certainly not have moved in this matter wholly of his own accord. Whatever foreign influence may have been exerted, however, there can be no doubt that the Austro-Hungarian monarchy is a unit on the question. The reception given the address of the Emperor-King by the Delegations at Budapest on the opening of the imperial Parliament on October 8 was proof of this. In reply to all suggestions and protests, Austria has declined to reconsider her action in completing the annexation of the two provinces, has announced her intention of refusing to enter any international conference that will not regard such annexation as a *fait accompli,* and sets forth her viewpoint in these highly significant words of the Emperor-King:

The powers, animated entirely by peaceful intentions, are endeavoring in mutual understanding to mitigate and remove the difficulties from which the European situation is not yet free. Thanks to our alliance with Germany and Italy and our friendly relations with the other powers Austria-Hungary is in a position to co-operate prominently in the maintenance of peace. The monarchy can only perform this task efficiently if it is powerful and well armed; it is a task commensurate with its traditions and its position in Europe.

Baron von Aerenthal denies that the annexation is an infraction of the Berlin treaty, declaring it to be a development of the treaty "which was foreseen when the convention was framed, and which in no way justifies the convocation of a European congress." He points, further, to Austria's peaceful and friendly intentions toward Turkey, emphasizing the Emperor's announcement that Austrian troops will evacuate the province of Novibazar, occupied by the forces of the Dual Monarchy since 1879.

Crete Proclaims Herself Greek.

Before Europe had a chance to recover from its astonishment over the Austrian and Bulgarian coups the dispatches told us that the inhabitants of the island of Crete, with great enthusiasm and military ceremonies, had



KIAMIL PASHA, THE TURKISH GRAND VIZIER.

(The premier of the Young Turk administration is a man in his seventieth year, but full of vigor and liberal to the core.)

thrown off their allegiance to Turkey, and proclaimed themselves subjects of Greece. This act was formally confirmed a week later (on October 14) by a vote in their national Assembly, and a committee was appointed to govern the island provisionally in the name of the King of Greece and in conformity with Greek laws, until such time as the union could be actually consummated. Crete, it will be remembered, has been for years an international danger spot. This island in the Mediterranean has a population overwhelmingly Greek, and has been for 250 years under the actual or nominal rule of Turkey. In 1898, after more than seventy years of almost continuous insurrection against Turkey, the nations of Europe intervened and constituted the island an autonomous state under a High Commissioner of the powers, nominally subject to Turkey, but paying no tribute. For the past two years the King of Greece has exercised the right of proposing the name of the High Commissioner, his choice being invariably recognized by the four protecting powers (Great Britain, France, Russia, and Italy). The present High Commissioner is Alexander A. Zaimis, formerly Prime Minister of Greece.

The Powers Compel Deliberation.

Turkey, of course, protested at once against the action of the Cretans, and while their incorporation with Greece has long been a cherished ambition of their motherland, the Athens government correctly and cautiously declined to formally recognize the transfer of sovereignty until the protecting powers should agree. Speaking for the four, Great Britain promptly notified Greece that until affairs in the island are restored to their legal status the protecting powers cannot promise anything in relation to Cretan aspirations, which must be considered at a general European conference. Greece's stake in the Balkan "muddle" is, however, more than the fate of Crete. The relation of the Greek Government and the Greek people to the religious and political problems in Macedonia and to the so-called exarchate or national churches of Bulgaria and Servia are complicated, and may yet involve the little Hellenic kingdom in the general problem.

The Stake of Servia and Montenegro.

It has been the dream of the Balkan Slavs, consistently encouraged by Russia, for three centuries and more, to unite all their brethren in one empire, which should revive the glories of the Servian-Bulgarian federation of the Middle Ages. It was the revolt of Bosnia and Herzegovina against the Sultan which brought on the Turko-Russian war of 1878 and Austria-Hungary's formal absorption of these two provinces, the majority of whose inhabitants are Serbs of the same general Turk-hating race as the people of Servia and Montenegro, not only put an end to this Servian ambition but made the Servian people fear for their own future as an independent state. Ever since Bismarck's time, and it is believed in accordance with the great German stateman's ideas in framing the Berlin treaty, Austria's sovereignty has been pushed southward and eastward. The two newly incorporated provinces have been regarded for the past thirty years as "the German gates to the Orient."

Is Servia's Independence in Danger?

A glance at the map will show how to the eyes of patriotic Servians and Montenegrins the advance of the Austrian Teuton to the south and west by absorbing their compatriots is a real peril to them. Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Servian premier recently remarked, are to Servia, what Korea was to Japan before the war with Russia. Servia's fate, said the Roumanian Foreign Minister, when the annexation was announced, is already sealed. "It is merely a question whether the Servians prefer to perish like heroes in war or like mice in a trap." At the Berlin Congress Count Andrassy, the leading Austro-Hungarian representative, announced that his country would not brook the creation of any new Slav states in the Balkans, that she would never permit Servia and Montenegro to strengthen themselves at the expense of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and that she would at the earliest possible opportunity "penetrate by means of railways and trade extension to the Egean Sea."

Anti-Austrian Feeling in Servia.

Since that time the Dual Monarchy as been gradually transformed into a Slav state. Out of its 45,000,000 population to-day more than 22,000,000 are Slavonic, and the remainder (German, Magyar, and Latin) are so hostile one to the other that the Slav dominates. The absorption of Servia and the other Balkan Slavs would be only hastening the day when Austria, instead of Russia, would be recognized by the world as the protectress of the Slavonic peoples. But Austria is as yet dominated by Berlin, and therefore hateful to true Slavs. The relations between Austria-Hungary and Servia have never been cordial, and during the past few years tariff wars and boycotts have marked the intercourse of the two peoples. In view of these facts, the student of Balkan politics was not surprised at the anti-Austrian feeling aroused in Servia to a pitch of fury upon the announcement of the annexation of the two provinces. The Belgrade government at once sent a vigorous protest to Vienna and to the other European capitals, and for several days an anti-Austrian war by Servia seemed inevitable.

Where Italy's Interests Are.

Prince Nicholas of Montenegro issued a proclamation (October 7) making common cause with Servia and announcing that, in view of Austria-Hungary's violation of the Treaty of Berlin, Montenegro would no longer feel herself bound by the clause limiting her maritime rights. Many warlike speeches were made by the Crown Princes of both Servia and Montenegro, and in each case the Skupshtina, or national parliament, voted confidence in whatever might be done by the ministry. Troops were mobilized and some anti-Austrian rioting took place. The counsels of

cooler heads prevailed, however,—particularly when it became known that Germany and Austria had intercepted the supply of Servian ammunition which had been ordered from France. The news of unrest and a reported intention to declare independence in Albania,—Turkey's polyglot, unruly region on the Adriatic,—brought Italy actively into the problem. The autonomy of Albania is guaranteed by Austria-Hungary and Italy in case the *status quo* in Turkey is ever disturbed. The Italian kingdom has for years looked longingly at the excellent soil and fine climate of the woefully governed Turkish province which lies directly opposite its eastern coast. Furthermore, the Italian Queen is a daughter of the Prince of Montenegro. Italy has interests also in Dalmatia, the Austro-Hungarian province which runs along the Adriatic, cutting off Montenegro from the sea, and many other scores to settle with Austria before the mastery of the Adriatic shall be determined.

Essence of the Balkan Question.

Stated in its broad, general lines, the Balkan or Near Eastern, question is threefold. The first phase is that of a race war, the "triangular duel" between Teuton, Slav, and Turk. This "*Drang nach Osten*" of the Teuton, the ever westward march of the Slav, and the slow retreat of the Ottoman from Europe are complicated by Latin influences persisting in Roumania from old Roman times and reaching out from the young Italian nation, and by the efforts of Greek religion and nationality to again dominate in Macedonia. The second factor is that of state-making. It consists of the aspirations of the various small Slav nationalities either for autonomy, for independent sovereignty, or for union into a great pan-Balkan empire. The third factor is the *weltpolitik* of Europe, the jealousy and rivalry of the great powers. For four centuries and a half, ever since the conquering Turk crossed the Bosphorus and took Constantinople, the grim contest has gone on to dislodge him by war and diplomacy. In both these up to the present time the Turk has generally proved himself the equal, if not the superior, of the so-called Christian powers. On another page (593) this month we present a graphic series of character sketches of men who count in the Balkans in this Turk-expelling warfare by a journalist and ex-United States Consul in that troubled region to which we commend attention.

The Steady Retreat of the Turk.

The expulsion of the followers of Mohammed from the European continent has been so steadily, unceasingly, and unanimously sought by Europe through these four and a half centuries that it is difficult to hear with patience the solemn prating of the "close constructionists" of treaties, who demand the territorial integrity of Turkey and the Porte's right to lands long since shorn from it, no more part of the Sultan's empire than Cuba is part of Spain and under his suzerainty only by a diplomatic figment recorded nowhere except in the reference books and in the solemn phraseology of diplomatic notes. The Turk himself has not been deceived. He knows that what seemed to be a radical change in the map of Europe during the first week of October was after all only a paper change. He has not to-day one square foot less of territory than before Bulgaria asserted her independence and Austria formally extended her official sovereignty over Bosnia and Herzegovina. It is simply a case of calling things by their real names. The Turk has never administered any province inhabited by an alien race with decent government. It has always been a case of the exaction of a brutal conqueror's tribute, a "hold up." He knows he has remained in Europe only as a conqueror depending on his military arm. For two centuries Europe has been elbowing him out of the continent. For more than a century this regular evolution has been going on while the Turk has been slowly expelled from Europe: his territory has been carved into, first, "spheres of influence," then provinces under "suzerainty," then "autonomous principalities," then independent sovereign states. The Turk understands. What will he do in this new crisis in his history?

What Will the Powers Do?

The Near Eastern question is first of all a European problem. The crisis precipitated by the actions of Bulgaria and Austria-Hungary during the early days of last month was less than twenty-four hours old when it had become a full-grown continental problem involving, besides the principals, every great European power. Indeed, the question has become a tremendous diplomatic duel between two great European groups: Great Britain, France, and Russia on the one side, and the Triple Alliance (Germany, Austria, and Italy) on the other, with the fate of Turkey and the various Balkan nations as the stake. Before any formal reply had been

sent to the autograph letters of the Austrian Kaiser or any foreign office had officially acknowledged the changed status in the Balkans, Sir Edward Grey, British Foreign Minister, announced the attitude of Great Britain to Bulgaria, Austria, Turkey, and the other powers in these words:

His Majesty's government cannot admit the right of any power to alter an international treaty without the consent of the other parties to it, and it therefore refuses to sanction any infraction of the Berlin treaty and declines to recognize what has been done until the views of the other powers are known, especially those of Turkey, which is more directly concerned than any one else.

Great Britain Acts at Once.

He followed this up by energetic action in dispatching a naval squadron to the mouth of the Dardanelles. This action on the part of Great Britain instantly and effectively shifted the crux of the situation from the Balkans themselves to the council chambers of the great European powers. The Turkish and Bulgarian governments at once issued their declarations of intention to maintain the peace; Austria-Hungary conceded that, while she would not discuss the fact of her annexation of the two provinces, she was not averse to considering the proposition of compensation to Turkey; Greece decided to wait before formally acknowledging the extension of her sovereignty to Crete; and a series of pourparlers and diplomatic notes began between the foreign offices of Great Britain, France, and Russia with the object of summoning at an early date a general European conference to consider the actions of Bulgaria and Austria. The negotiations were conducted mainly at the initiative of Premier Clémenceau of France, speaking through the Foreign Minister, M. Pichon, the republic being the most disinterested of the great powers. For several days the British Premier Asquith and Sir Edward Grey, alternately representing Britain foreign policy in discussions at London with the Russian Foreign Minister, Count Isvolski, declined to agree to any reopening of the general Balkan question, insisting upon a limitation of the discussion before a general conference to the Bulgarian, Austrian, and Cretan actions.



HAS THE KAISER BEEN ISOLATED AGAIN?

PEACE (to Emperor William): "Everybody else seems to be my friend; why do you stand aloof?"

THE KAISER: "But haven't I always said that I was your friend?"

PEACE: "Yes; but can't you do something to prove it?"

From *Punch* (London).

Suggested Program for a New Congress.

Finally a program for a conference was tentatively agreed upon by France, Great Britain, and Russia to be offered for the approval of the other signatories to the Berlin treaty. The terms of this agreement were prematurely given to the world on October 14. Although official denials of the correctness of the published terms have come from both the French and British foreign offices, their accuracy has been attested by more than one reliable authority. Furthermore, as they actually represent the point of view of the three interested powers as known to the world, and would, in all probability, form the basis for discussion in a general conference, it is worth while giving the substance of them here. The proposals, which are eight in number, are in substance as follows:

The First is to the effect that those articles of the treaty of Berlin which relate to Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia shall be replaced by stipulations recognizing the independence of Bulgaria, as at present constituted, and determining the financial obligations of Bulgaria toward Turkey. New clauses probably will settle also the question of the Oriental Railway. The Second and Third proposals are that the powers shall "take note" of the annexation by Austria-Hungary of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the return of the Sanjak of Novibazar to Turkey. The Fourth article relates to Crete. It replaces the article of the treaty by clauses recognizing the annexation of Crete to Greece, and determining the financial obligations of Greece in respect to

Crete toward Turkey. It is understood that the four powers under whose protection Crete has been (Russia, Great Britain, France, and Italy) will settle the Cretan question in concert with Turkey before referring it to the conference. The Fifth proposal is to the effect that arrangements similar to the above shall apply to the Armenian provinces of Turkey. The Sixth article deals with Montenegro. The Montenegrin rights of sovereignty are limited by the treaty of Berlin. It is proposed that all these restrictions shall be abrogated. The Seventh point in the program originally contained the statement that "it is desirable to seek and give compensation to Servia and Montenegro by a rectification of the Bosnian and Herzegovinian frontiers joining Novibazar." This was taken to imply that a strip would be taken from the territory annexed by Austria-Hungary. At a final meeting held between Sir Edward Grey and M. Isvolski the Seventh proposal was altered into a simple affirmation of the "desirability" of giving compensation to Servia and Montenegro, but without specifying the means. The Eighth proposal concerns the River Danube and declares that it is desirable to revise the regulations governing the Danube traffic so as to give larger rights to the states bordering on the river.

The eight articles of the program are followed by a declaration that, as the new Ottoman constitution foreshadows a reorganization of the judicial system and a remodeling of Turkish legislation in conformity with the principles of other European states, the powers are prepared to consider in concert with Turkey, so soon as these reforms are realized, the best means of doing away with the capitulations. It is declared also that this occasion could be taken to consider the abolition of the postoffices now maintained by foreign powers in Turkey.

The first results of the agreement upon this basis for discussion to become evident to the world were the increased popularity of the British Liberal government at home, as attested in several bye-elections; the determination of the Asquith ministry to "definitely abandon" its policy of a reduction of armaments, and the drawing together of Great Britain and Russia, until it was confidently asserted in the press dispatches that the Anglo-Russian understanding has now become an *entente* as *cordiale* as the agreement at present existing between France and England.

What Is the German Program?

Meanwhile the various protests of Turkey to Bulgaria, to Austria, and to the other powers had been made and the first reply to the autograph letter of Emperor Francis Joseph had come from Berlin. This, it is understood, was an unqualified approval by Germany of Austria's action and an assurance of the former's intention to support the Dual Monarchy in case of "serious eventualities" (we are quoting the words of the semi-official *North German Gazette*). Although the French Foreign Office had kept Berlin informed of the progress of the negotiations between the republic, Russia, and Great Britain, the other two parties to the new group of three had not communicated with the German capital, and Kaiser Wilhelm, evidently regarding this as a slight, almost immediately, and despite the denial of the authenticity of the published program for a conference, announced through Chancellor von Bülow that Germany could not agree upon any such basis for reconsidering the Berlin treaty. Can Germany hold her allies together in the face of the new Dreibund,—England, France, and Russia,—which is more powerful, probably, than any other international combination ever created? Or is power actually drifting from the Kaiser's grasp? The possibility of this was strongly suggested on October 19, when the British Foreign Office was notified that Italy, one of Germany's allies, adhered to the draft of the program for the international congress made public the week before. Meanwhile, Turkey awaits the decision of the powers, realizing perfectly well that the best she can expect is a legalization of the latest curtailing of her power, with "compensation" in the form of money payments (indeed, the London *Financial News* announced on October 16 "on high authority" that this compensation to Turkey would take the form of a loan of $250,000,000 guaranteed by the powers), and understanding also that she will be fortunate if the projected European congress does not further despoil her.

Japan's Great Welcome to the Fleet.

After a warm welcome at Manila, the cordiality of which was not lessened by the cholera scare in the Philippine capital (although none but the officers was permitted to go ashore), and some very rough handling by a typhoon on the passage between the Philippines and the Japanese coast, the American battleship fleet sailed into Yokohama harbor early on the morning of October 18. The Japanese imperial and local authorities had prepared a rousing welcome for the American ships and sailors. The great Japanese port had a population twice its normal size, many thousands of visitors having come from all over the empire to be present at the arrival of the Americans. The Japanese Admiralty had prepared for its visitors the unusual honor of a "consort escort,"—that is to say,

each American warship was escorted into Yokohama harbor by a Japanese vessel of the same class. Rear-Admiral Sperry and his officers and men were fêted and entertained and made the mark of many unusual honors. The Japanese authorities and people were undoubtedly desirous of showing the sincerity of their pleasure at seeing the ships of what Marquis Matsukata calls "our very best friends on earth." One of the most impressive features of the entertainment was the assembling of 10,000 Japanese school children, in one of the Tokio parks, and who sang "Hail Columbia" in English. An audience with the Emperor and a grand state lunch to the American Admiral and his officers completed the program of entertainment.

Sincerity of the Welcome.

Upon landing at Yokohama Admiral Sperry, who bore a friendly message to the Mikado from President Roosevelt, was handed a set of telegrams of welcome from all the prominent Japanese statesmen, public officials, and many other prominent citizens. The words of Count Okuma, who has been so often reported as being anti-American in his feelings, will serve to show the general tenor of these messages. Count Okuma said: "We welcome the American fleet with our whole heart. We people of Japan remember with the most profound gratitude the help and guidance of America." After a week spent in Japanese waters the fleet left for China. From there it goes to Manila and thence through the Indian Ocean, arriving at Suez on January 5. Gibraltar, it is expected, will be reached on February 3, and the ships will proceed then direct to the United States, being due to arrive at Hampton Roads on February 22. The sincerity of the welcome to the American fleet and the pleasure of the Japanese at pleasing their American friends have had an effect on the stock market in Tokio, which, the news dispatches tell us, was stronger during the first week in October than it has been for two years. In an imperial rescript addressed to the people on October 14 the Mikado exhorted the nation to recognize the fact that "the welfare of the Orient and of the Occident is interdependent," and emphasized the need for cultivating international friendships. Such a reference at the time of the visit of the American fleet has a significance worth bringing to the notice of all our good friends who have been so busy for months past prophesying an American-Japanese war. The Mikado's reply to President Roosevelt's message was most cordial, and bore the marks of sincerity and friendliness.

The General Election in Canada.

The overshadowing political event of last month in Canada was the dissolution of the federal Parliament early in the month and the general election, which was held on October 26. The Parliament just dissolved was the tenth since confederation, the fourth that has supported a Liberal administration, and the third that has victoriously returned Sir Wilfrid Laurier to power. The last House of Commons, elected in November, 1904, contained 214 members. The House elected last month will contain 221, the increase representing the growth of population in the western provinces. Sir Wilfrid Laurier conducted his campaign on the issue, "Let the Liberals finish the big work they have begun for a big Canada." The Conservative opposition, charging the Liberal administration with corruption in administration, in appointments to public office, in manipulation of lands, in the use of public money, and in the abuse of electoral power in the constituencies, looked forward confidently to a large reduction in the Laurier majority, if not to a victory. Before this issue of the magazine reaches its readers the result will be known. As in our own present general election, the issue in the Dominion was largely one of men rather than policies, and, whether actually victorious or not, Sir Wilfrid Laurier's commanding and attractive personality will always remain one of the most impressive in the political history of our neighbor to the north. It should be noted in passing that the long-drawn-out strike on the Canadian Pacific Railroad has at last been settled, the result being a victory for the company. It will also interest Americans to know that, last month, new lieutenant-governors were appointed to the provinces of Ontario and Quebec. In Ontario Sir William Mortimer Clark, appointed in April, 1903, retired, and was succeeded by the Hon. J. M. Gibson, for many years a member of the Legislature as well as a member of three different Conservative federal ministries. In Quebec Sir Louis A. Jetté, lieutenant-governor since February, 1898, retired to take a place on the bench of the province judiciary, and was succeeded by Sir C. A. P. Pelletier, who from 1896 to 1900 was Speaker of the Canadian Senate.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From September 21 to October 20, 1908.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

September 21.—President Roosevelt issues a statement in regard to Senator Foraker's relations to the Standard Oil Company.

September 22.—Direct primaries are held for the first time in New Jersey; Everett Colby, heading the "New Idea" movement, wins the Republican nomination for Senator from Essex County by a plurality of 1605.

September 23.—President Roosevelt, replying to Mr. Bryan, makes a statement regarding Governor Haskell's relations with the Standard Oil Company in Oklahoma....Mr. Taft starts on his Western speech-making tour....The followers of Senator Stephenson obtain control of the Republican organization in Wisconsin.

September 24.—The New York State Convention of the Independence party nominates Clarence J. Shearn for Governor.

September 25.—Governor Charles N. Haskell, of Oklahoma, resigns his position as treasurer of the Democratic National Committee..Senator Foraker (Rep.), of Ohio, issues a statement denying the charges made against him in connection with the Standard Oil Company, and bitterly criticises President Roosevelt and Mr. Taft....New Hampshire Democrats nominate Judge George H. Bingham for Governor.... Gen. T. Coleman Du Pont, chairman of the Speakers' Bureau of the Republican National Committee, sends in his resignation.

September 26.—The Indiana Legislature passes the County Local Option bill....Herman Ridder, of New York, is appointed treasurer of the Democratic National Committee, to succeed Governor Haskell, of Oklahoma, resigned.

September 30.—Mr. Taft speaks to large audiences at Lincoln, Neb., the home of William J. Bryan.

October 1.—Massachusetts Democrats nominate James H. Vahey for Governor.

October 2.—Judge George H. Bingham refuses the nomination for Governor made by the New Hampshire Democrats.

October 3.—Massachusetts Republicans nominate Eben S. Draper for Governor.

October 6.—Rhode Island Democrats nominate Olney Arnold for Governor.

October 7.—Joseph M. Brown (Dem.) is elected Governor of Georgia by a majority of from 80,000 to 90,000; the disfranchisement amendment to the constitution is ratified.

October 8.—George H. Prouty (Rep.) is inaugurated as Governor of Vermont.

October 9.—Dr. J. B. Bradley withdraws from the governorship primary recount in Michigan, leaving the board of State canvassers free to certify the nomination of Governor Warner (Rep.)....The Bureau of Municipal Research of New York City reports to Mayor McClellan that the city has expended $70,000,000 practically unaudited.

October 12.—The United States Supreme Court meets for the fall term.

October 14.—Rhode Island Republicans nominate Aram J. Pothier for Governor.

October 15.—The list of contributors to the Bryan campaign fund is made public, showing that over $248,000 has been given.

October 20.—The Vermont Legislature reelects United States Senator William P. Dillingham (Rep.) and elects ex-Gov. Carroll S. Page (Rep.) for the short term.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

September 24.—Señor Agusto B. Leguia is inaugurated President of Peru (see page 572) ....A summary of the political program of the Young Turks is published in Constantinople.

September 27.—A demonstration against the Licensing bill before the British Parliament takes place in London.

September 28.—Lord Tweedmouth resigns his post as Lord President of the Council in Great Britain.

September 29.—The new Defense bill for Australia is introduced into the federal Parliament; it provides for compulsory service.

September 30.—The Russian war budget for 1909, submitted to the Duma, carries an increase of $20,000,000 to raise salaries of officers and improve rations.

October 2.—The Shah of Persia excludes Tabriz from representation in the national Parliament as a penalty for insurrection.

October 5.—Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria declares at Tirnova the independence of the principality.

October 11.—A new Danish cabinet is formed, with M. Neergaard as Premier and Minister for Defense.

October 12.—Ferdinand, Czar of Bulgaria, is warmly greeted by the people of Sofia.... British and Dutch delegates from South African colonies meet at Durban, to draft a constitution uniting all the states....The autumn session of the British Parliament is opened.

October 17.—Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Premier of Canada, in asking support at Montreal in the coming election, states that this will be his last campaign.

October 18.—Martial law is declared in the Turkish provinces of Asia Minor, owing to reactionary agitation.

October 19.—M. Thomson, the French Minister of Marine, resigns after the Chamber of Deputies has passed a resolution deploring the negligence in his department....Nominations are made by both the Liberal and Conservative parties in practically all the constituencies of Canada....An edict of the Chinese Government

announces the abandonment of the opium monopoly

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

September 22.—Germany replies in a conciliatory spirit to the Franco-Spanish note on Morocco, but declares that no special privileges to any country can be recognized....Chinese at Canton threaten to boycott French firms be-



HIS HOLINESS JOACHIM III., PATRIARCH OF THE EAST.

(Spiritual and temporal head of the Orthodox Greek Church; more powerful than any of the Balkan rulers. See page 597.)

cause of the consul's refusal to permit the arrest of alleged pirates on a French steamer.

September 25.—Turkey appeals to the powers against the continued occupation of the Eastern Rumelian section of the Oriental Railway by Bulgarian troops....The German Minister at Caracas attempts to present Holland's second note to Venezuela; President Castro refuses to receive the note.

September 26.—Trouble occurs at Casablanca between French officials and representatives of the German consulate over the arrest of deserters.

September 28.—Great Britain, Germany, and Austria inform the Bulgarian Government that its occupation of a section of the Oriental Railway is unjustifiable; Bulgaria declares that the restoration of the railway to Turkish control is impossible.

October 2.—President Penna signs the general treaty of arbitration between Brazil and Argentina.

October 5.—France, England, and Russia agree on united action to prevent war between Turkey and Bulgaria.

October 7.—The popular assembly at Canea proclaims the union of Crete with Greece; a decree is issued stating that henceforth Cretan affairs will be conducted in the name of the Hellenic government....Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria issues a proclamation announcing Austro-Hungarian rights of sovereignty and succession over the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina....Great Britain opposes a conference of powers to discuss the revision of the Berlin treaty.

October 8.—The German Foreign Office at Berlin denies responsibility for the situation in the Balkans....An arbitration treaty between the United States and China is signed at Washington.

October 9.—Crowds in Belgrade threaten to force King Peter of Servia to abdicate unless he declares war on Austria....The Russian Foreign Minister arrives in London for a conference with Sir Edward Grey.

October 10.—A popular movement to boycott Austrian, Bulgarian, and German products is started in Constantinople.

October 12.—The National Assembly of Servia adopts a resolution supporting the government; the Montenegrin Assembly votes a credit of $3,200,000 to the ministry of war.... Germany and Italy inform Turkey that they oppose the infraction of the treaty of Berlin without the consent of the powers....The Cretan Parliament votes a union with Greece.

October 14.—Austria presents a formal protest to the Porte on the subject of the boycott against the Austrian Lloyd vessels....The Mexican Foreign Office confirms the resignation of Ambassador Creel.

October 15.—Great Britain, France, and Russia reach an agreement on the proposals to be submitted to the other powers as a basis for discussion at the coming conference on the Balkan situation....Strained relations between China and Japan result from an engagement between Chinese and Japanese troops in Korea.

October 16.—The Bulgarian cabinet decides to refuse to pay an indemnity to Turkey for Bulgaria's independence, but is willing to negotiate for the purchase of the Bulgarian section of the Oriental Railway.

October 17.—It is announced that Bulgaria has offered to disband her reserves if Great Britain and Germany will guarantee that Turkey will make no hostile move.

October 19.—Austria opens direct negotiations with Turkey regarding the annexation of



MISCHA ELMAN.

(The young Russian violinist who is about to visit America. See page 560.)

Bosnia and Herzegovina....The American State Department brings the matter of the expulsion of the Rev. Dr. Stover, a missionary, from Portuguese West Africa to the attention of the Portuguese Government.

October 20.—Unusual honors are shown to the officers of the American fleet by the Emperor and Empress of Japan, messages of good will being exchanged between the Emperor and President Roosevelt.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

September 21.—As the result of a lockout of cotton operators in Lancashire, England, 130,000 people are idle and 400 mills closed....A telephone fire in Paris destroys all communication on the right bank of the Seine....Wilbur Wright, in an aeroplane flight near Le Mans, France, remains in the air one hour thirty-one minutes and fifty-one seconds, covering nearly sixty-one miles....Chelsea, Mass., sustains a fire loss of $400,000.

September 22.—The Celtic Reunion is opened at Brest, in France....Thirteen men are killed and many injured by a turret explosion on board the French cruiser *Latouche-Tréville* at Toulon. ....A state of siege is proclaimed at Asuncion, Paraguay, because of a plot organized by members of the negro party....The International Fisheries Congress begins its sessions in Washington....The record for the year is made in the New York stock market, 1,490,000 shares being sold.

September 23.—A case of cholera is discovered at the Winter Palace, in St. Petersburg; a decrease in the number of cases is reported from Manila....A fresh outbreak of bubonic plague is reported at Caracas, Venezuela....Many cases of typhoid fever are reported in Montreal.

September 24.—Andrew Carnegie gives $1,250,000 to found a hero fund in Scotland similar to the one established by him in the United States.

September 26.—In an elevated railway collision in Berlin, Germany, twenty persons are killed and nineteen seriously injured.

September 27.—Cholera is reported as decreasing in St. Petersburg....Twenty lives are lost in the wreck of the British ship *Loch Finlas* on the Tasmanian coast....The sesquicentennial celebration of the city of Pittsburg is opened.

September 28.—The International Tuberculosis Congress opens in Washington.

September 29.—Floods cause great loss of life in the Hyderabad and Deccan districts of India.

September 30.—The Irish University act becomes operative....A Turkish steamer sinks a ferryboat near Smyrna, causing a loss of 140 lives....The United States battleships *Alabama* and *Maine* arrive at Gibraltar.

October 1.—The two-cent postage rate between the United States and Great Britain and Ireland goes into effect.

October 2.—The American battleship fleet arrives at Manila.

October 3.—The International Congress on Tuberculosis, at Washington, adjourns after voting down Dr. Koch's theory that bovine



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LORD NORTHCLIFFE, NEW OWNER OF LONDON "TIMES."

(Alfred Harmsworth, the famous English newspaper proprietor, now in this country for the purpose of observing a national election.)

tuberculosis is not communicable to human beings.

October 4.—The settlement of the strike of workmen on the Canadian Pacific System under the Dominion law for settling labor disputes is announced; the men return to work unconditionally....Philadelphia begins a week's celebration of the 225th anniversary of her founding.

October 6.—Wilbur Wright, with a passenger in his aeroplane, remains in the air one hour four minutes and twenty seconds, thus fulfilling the conditions of the $100,000 contract with M. Weiller.

October 7.—Harry Augustus Garfield is inaugurated president of Williams College....In the foundering of the French steamer *Juanita* on the Grand Banks twenty-five men are drowned....The faculty of St. Petersburg University ignores the order of the governmnet to reopen the university....China plans a loan of £5,000,000 to be issued in London and Paris for the redemption of bonds of the Peking-Hankow Railroad....Mr. Taft and Mr. Bryan meet at the dinner of the Chicago Association of Commerce....A grain elevator owned by the Canadian Pacific and Boston & Maine Railroad companies explodes at Richford, Vt., killing thirteen persons and causing damage of $400,000....The hearings in the United States Government's suit against the coal roads under the anti-trust laws are resumed in New York.

October 8.—In the National League baseball championship game Chicago defeats New York by a score of 4 to 2.

October 10.—Wilbur Wright makes a new aeroplane record with a passenger at Le Mans, France, remaining in the air one hour nine minutes and forty-five seconds.

October 14.—John S. Kennedy, the New York banker and philanthropist, gives $1,000,000 to the Presbyterian Hospital.

October 15.—An historical congress is opened in Sargossa, Spain....Anthracite miners in Pennsylvania demand of the operators an entirely new agreement to replace the present one, which expires April 1, 1909....The fortieth annual convention of the National American Woman's Suffrage Association opens at Buffalo, N. Y....The American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions meets in Brooklyn, N. Y.

October 17.—The American battleship fleet is warmly welcomed at Yokohama, Japan.

October 18.—The cornerstone of a new $2,000,000 Roman Catholic cathedral is laid in St. Louis.

OBITUARY.

September 19.—Dr. J. M. Marroquin, ex-President of Colombia.

September 21.—Very Rev. James Carmichael, Lord Bishop of Montreal....Nicolas Salmeron, the Spanish Republican statesman.

September 22.—F. M. Howarth, a well-known comic illustrator, 43.

September 23.—Miss Hedwig Luszczewska (Deotyma), the famous Polish poet, 74.

September 24.—Sir Samuel Canning, eminent for deep-sea telegraphy, 85....Dwight Church, the American art collector, 72.

September 25.—Prof. Ernest F. Fenellosa, a well-known educator and lecturer, 55....James W. Paul, Jr., the Philadelphia financier, 57.

September 26.—Prof. Frank Parsons, of Boston University, author and lecturer, 54....William Farren, the English actor, 83....William Tallack, the English philanthropist, 77.

September 28.—Charles von Schwanebach, ex-Controller of the Russian Empire and ex-Minister of Agriculture....Joseph Wheelock, a well-known old-time actor, 70....Dr. Joseph H. Senner, former Commissioner of Immigration at the port of New York, 62.

September 29.—Albert Maignan, the French historical painter, 64.

September 30.—Charles Estreicher, the distinguished Polish bibliographer and librarian, 81....Rev. Francis Field Ellinwood, D.D., secretary of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions, 82.

October 1.—Charles A. Howland, president of the Quincy Mutual Life Insurance Company of Massachusetts, 79....Ex-Congressman John W. Causey, of Delaware, 67....Brig.-Gen. John E. Summers, U. S. A. Medical Corps, 86.

October 3.—Edward Wetherill, a prominent Quaker abolitionist before the Civil War, 88.

October 5.—Rt. Rev. Michael Tierney, Bishop of the Roman Catholic Diocese of Hartford, 69.

October 8.—Pearson B. Conn, publisher of the Steubenville, Ohio, *Herald*, 96....Stephen A. Douglas, a well-known Chicago lawyer, 58....George Wilson, secretary of the New York Chamber of Commerce for forty years, 70.

October 9.—Joseph O'Connor, chief of the editorial staff of the Rochester, N. Y., *Post-Express*, 67....Elbridge Henry Goss, author and banker, of Melrose, Mass., 78.

October 10.—William D. Murphy, the prison reformer, 76.

October 11.—Gen. Eppa Hunton, of Virginia, 86....Sir Henry Drummond Wolff, British Ambassador to Spain from 1892 to 1900, 78.

October 12.—Col. J. Mansfield Davies, a veteran of the Civil War, 80....Ex-Congressman Joseph A. Scranton, founder of the Scranton *Daily Republican*, 70.

October 13.—Dr. Daniel Coit Gilman, first president of Johns Hopkins University, 77 (see page 552).

October 15.—Edwin Reed, a well-known writer in the Bacon-Shakespeare controversy, 73....Antoine Jules Cesar Venceslas Ermanigilde Muzzarelli, an officer of the French Academy and a veteran of the Franco-Prussian War, 61....Miss Carol H. Beck, a well-known historical portrait painter.

October 16.—Rev. Joseph Leycester Lyne (Father Ignatius), 71.

October 17.—Major-Gen. Orlov, commander of the Russian punitive expedition to crush the Baltic insurrection in 1905-'06.

October 18.—Field Marshal Marquis Michitsura Nodzu, the famous Japanese commander, 68.

October 19.—Gustave Solomon Rogers, the comedian, 39....Sir John Henry Puleston, formerly known as American member of the British House of Commons, 78....John Durand, translator of the historical works of H. A. Taine.

SOME FINAL CARTOONS ON THE PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGN.



THE CABINET ON THE JOB.

From the *Evening World* (New York).

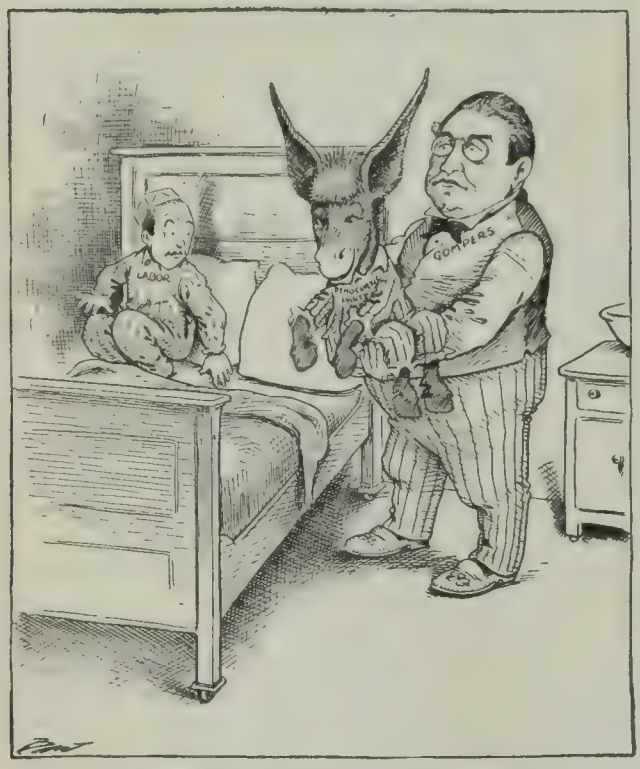
(Mr. Taft's eminent fitness for the Presidency has been so patent to his former colleagues in the Cabinet, that practically every member of that body has taken occasion to make one or more speeches in favor of his candidacy.)



THE PRESIDENTIAL HANDICAP!

(The cartoonists are picturing Mr. Bryan as in doubt whether he is running against Mr. Taft or Mr. Roosevelt.)

From the *Constitution* (Atlanta).



A STRANGE BEDFELLOW, INDEED.

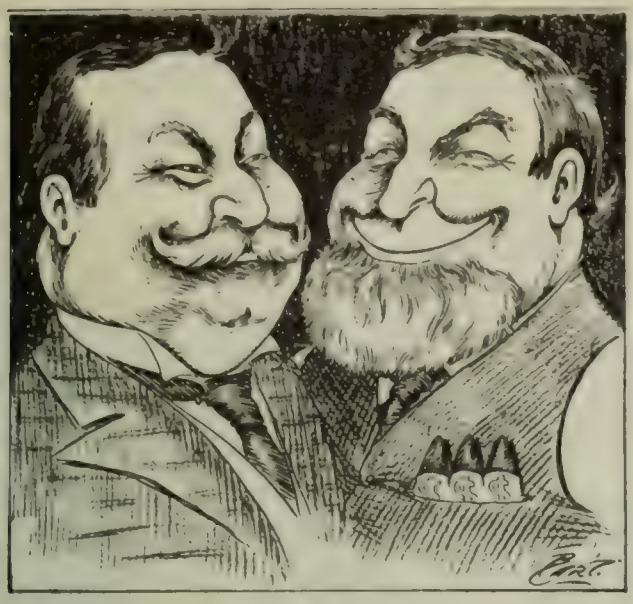
Mr. Gompers has some new ideas about politics, but what does Labor think about i

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



"THAT'S DIFFERENT, JUDGE TAFT, I HADN'T UNDERSTOOD YOUR LABOR DECISIONS THIS WAY."

From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



TWO OF A KIND.

Mr. Taft's smile is matched by the smile of the farmer of the Northwest.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



BUSY DAYS AHEAD FOR SENATOR BEVERIDGE.

From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago).



HEARST IS BLOCKING THE WAY.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



DISTURBING THE STUMPERS.

From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



DOESN'T THE SIGN LOOK OUT OF PLACE?

From the *Morning Call* (Paterson).



HARD TIMES FOR THE DOUGH BAGS.

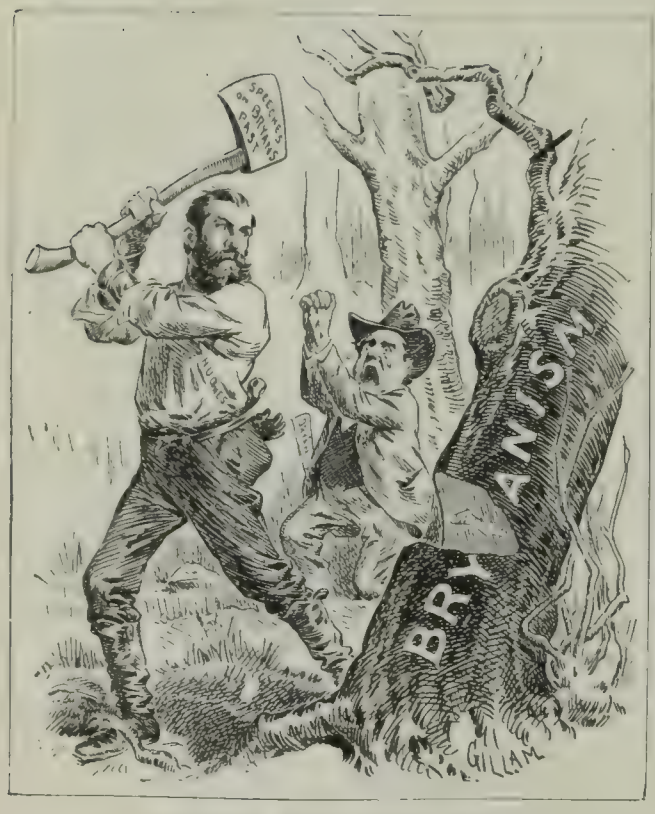
From the *World* (New York).



APPLYING FOR THE JOB.

UNCLE SAM: "Well, what experience have you had?"

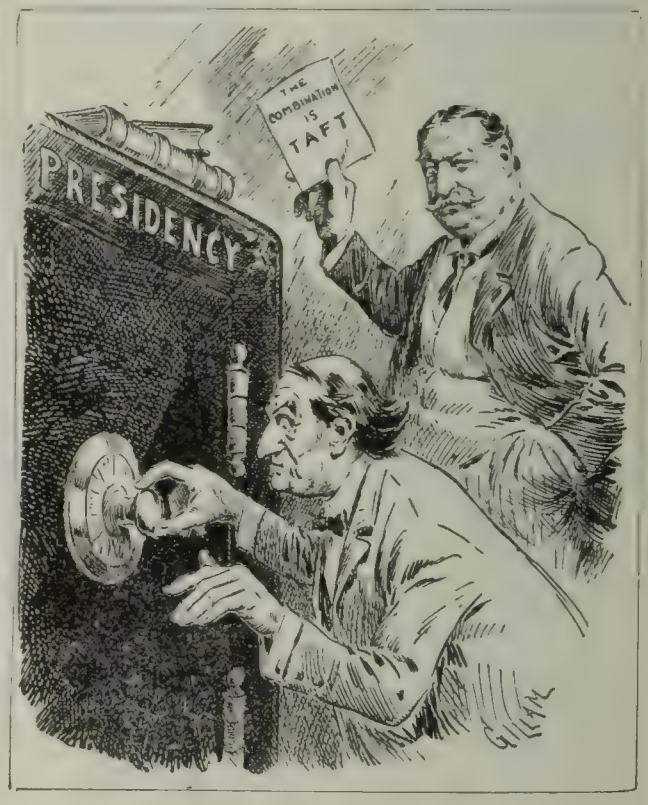
From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



"WOODMAN, SPARE THAT TREE."

(Governor Hughes on his Western campaign.)

From the *Globe* (New York).



HASN'T GOT THE COMBINATION.

(The combination is T-A-F-T.)

From the *Globe* (New York).



"HE BEGAN IT, TEACHER."

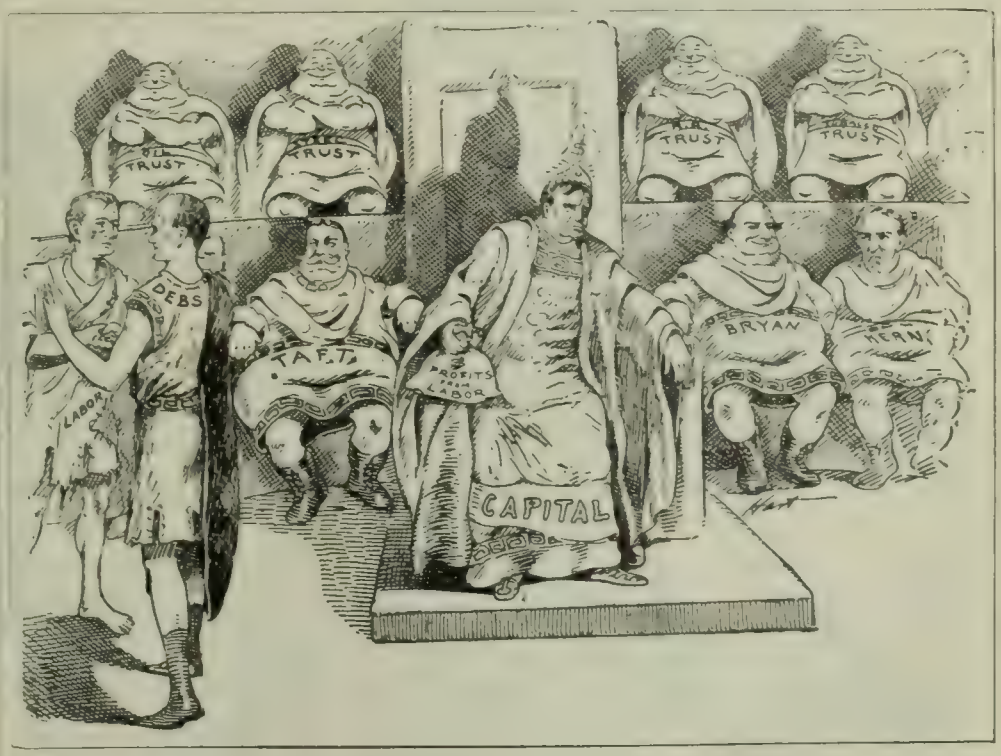
The National Schoolmaster is somewhat indignant at the prevalence of mudslinging.

From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica).



"THE CALL OF THE WILD!"

From the *Daily Eagle*
(Brooklyn, N. Y.).



BEWARE THE IDES OF MARCH!

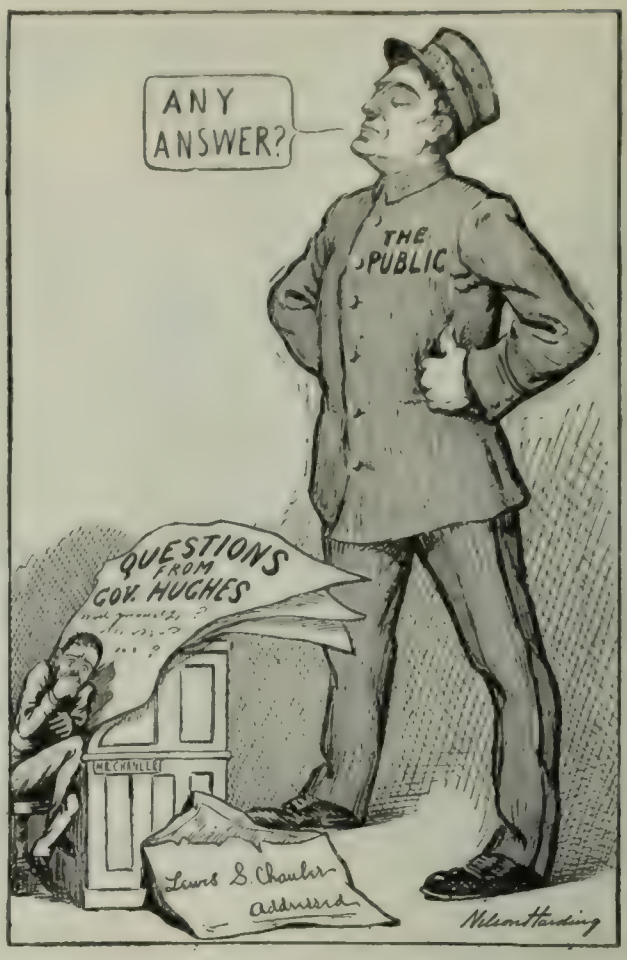
CÆSAR: Let me have men about me that are fat;
Sleek-headed men, and such as sleep o' nights;
Yond Cassius has a lean and hungry look;
He thinks too much. Such men are dangerous.
—Julius Cæsar, Act I.

From the *Evening Call* (New York).



"WE'VE BOTH HAD A PERFECTLY CORKING GOOD TIME!"

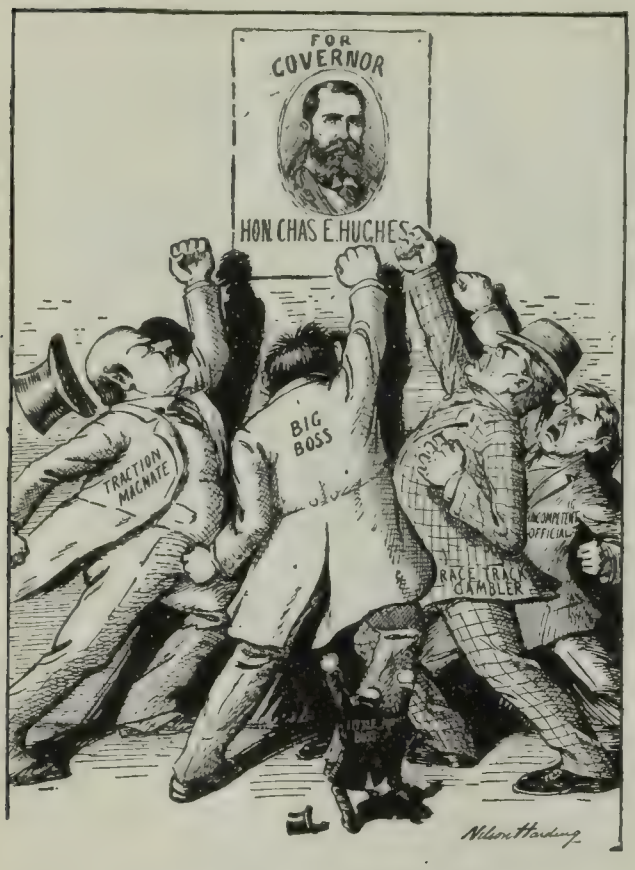
From the *Daily Eagle* (Brooklyn, N. Y.).



WAITING FOR AN ANSWER.

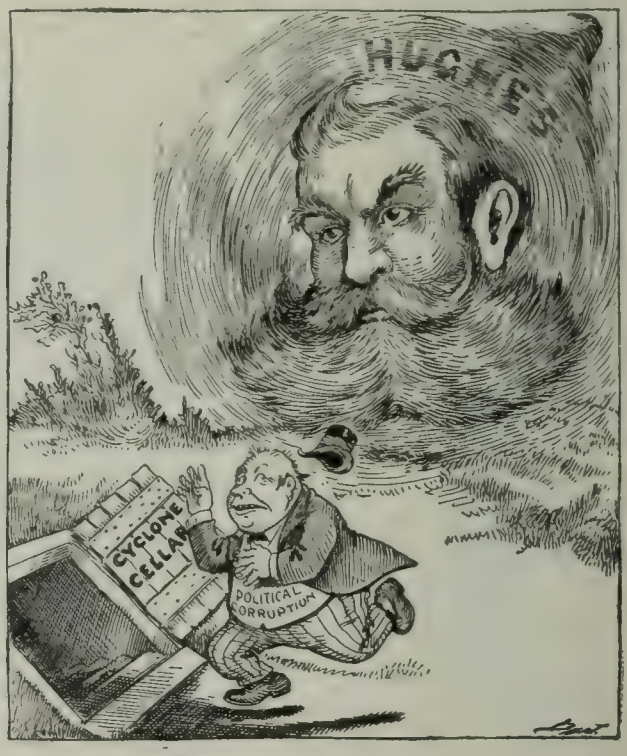
(The Public waiting for answers to Governor Hughes' questions.)

From the *Daily Eagle* (Brooklyn, N. Y.).



THEY'RE AGAINST HUGHES!

From the *Daily Eagle* (Brooklyn, N. Y.).



THE POLITICAL TORNADO.

Governor Hughes takes the West by storm.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



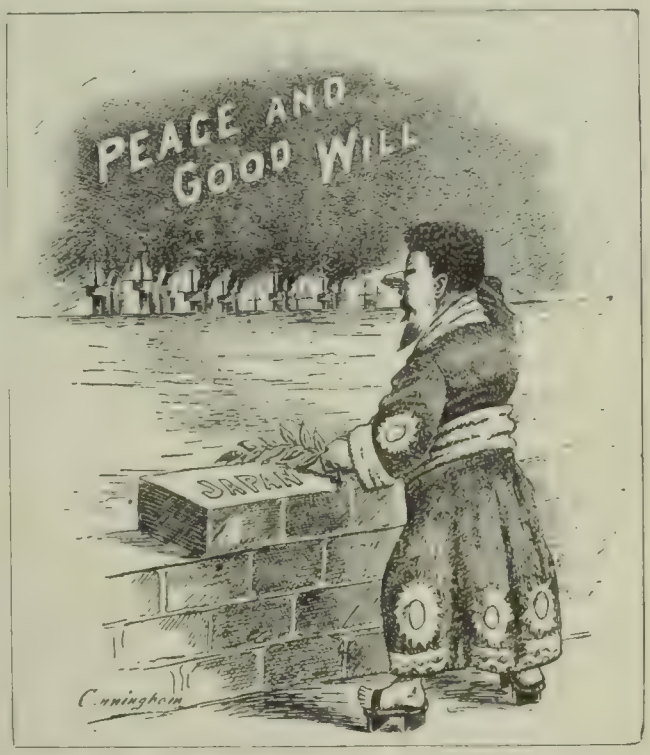
LOOKS LIKE A TOUCHDOWN FOR TAFT.
From the *Press* (Philadelphia).



THE "PEERLESS LEADER" FINDS A "DEAD ONE" ON HIS HANDS.
From the *News Tribune* (Duluth).



"TROUBLE IN THE BALKANS."
From the *Evening Herald* (Duluth).



APROPOS OF THE CORDIAL WELCOME EXTENDED TO OUR FLEET BY THE JAPANESE NATION.
From the *Herald* (Washington, D. C.).

DANIEL C. GILMAN: BUILDER OF UNIVERSITIES.

BY NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.

(President of Columbia University.)

IN the unexpectedly sudden death of President Gilman all that is best in American life has lost one of its most noteworthy representatives. It was Mr. Gilman's lot to live at a most interesting time in the history of American civilization. His sound early training, his family traditions, his opportunities for foreign travel, and his wide acquaintance with public men and scholars in all lands, gave exceptional power to his mature and well-balanced mind and provided an admirable counterpoise to his unusual powers of imagination and initiative. While President Gilman was intimately associated with many and important undertakings of a public, a scientific, and a distinctively educational character, he will be chiefly remembered, and deservedly so, for his creative work in planning and organizing the Johns Hopkins University, which work marked the beginning of a new era in the history of higher education.

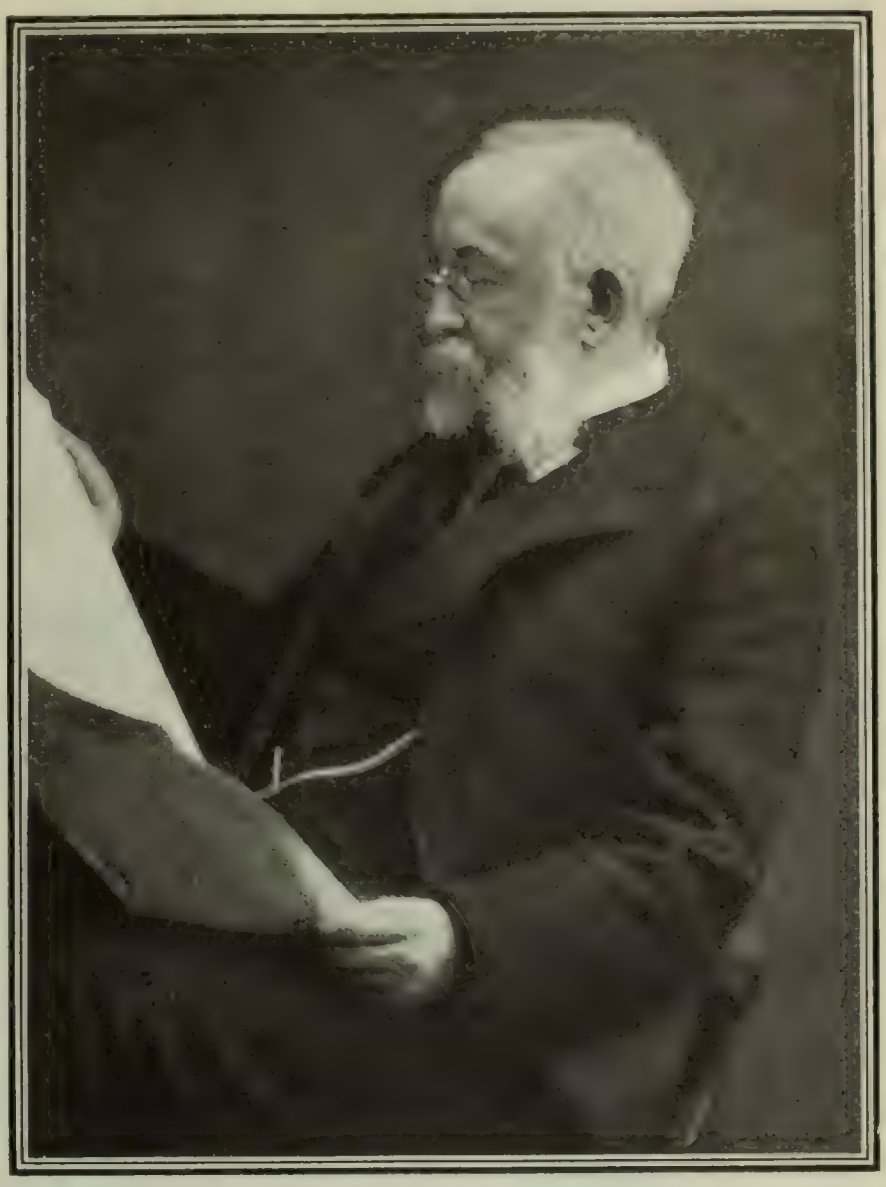
The name of this obscure Baltimore merchant who left his fortune to found a university and a hospital has been made famous in every part of the known world by President Gilman, by the men whom he invited to his side, by the forces which they together set in motion, and by the scientific and literary achievements of themselves and their students.

While Mr. Gilman was the college librarian at Yale there was stirring in his mind the thought of a new educational movement which should be creative, not imitative, in character, and which should have for its primary end the advancement of knowledge rather than the instruction of youth. He realized early in his life how essential such an undertaking as this was for our American life and for the integrity and vitality of our American democracy. His experience as the administrative head of the University of California gave him a still wider outlook and a broader acquaintance with men and things, so that when, acting upon the best advice which they could obtain, the trustees appointed under the terms of the will of Johns Hopkins chose Mr. Gilman to the presidency of their non-existent university, they not only did the wisest thing that it was in their power to do, but they chose the one American who was then best fitted to be their leader and their guide.

Fortunately for Mr. Gilman and for the United States, the means to execute his ideas were at hand, as was the personal confidence in his judgment which enabled him to go forward rapidly and without trammels. Mr. Gilman had read long and to good purpose in the history of universities. He realized that a university cannot be built of brick and stone, and that the name may be claimed by an empty and futile thing. He realized that this new university must consist of scholars with the ability to create and to stimulate others to push forward, however little, the boundaries of human knowledge. When Gildersleeve and Sylvester and Martin and Rowland and Remsen were brought together in a university faculty, a real American university had begun to be. It is within my own memory how President Gilman's plans and choice of associates touched the imagination and fired the zeal of some of the most brilliant of the younger American scholars of that time. From their places on the benches and in the laboratories of the German universities, from New England, from the Middle West, and from the South, the choicest and best of these young zealots in scholarship turned their faces toward Baltimore as a good Mussulman looks toward Mecca.

The first company of students who gathered at Baltimore was as remarkable in its way and as prophetic of what was to follow as the group of teachers who were there assembled. The rooms in which these men gathered were simple enough. They had about them nothing to inflame the imagination or to stir the esthetic sense; they were even without the traditions which have given to many a dingy room in Europe a value and a significance all its own. But there was something in those simple rooms more powerful even than architecture or tradition. It

was nothing less than a turning of the American soul toward the highest and best things in the life of scholarship and of culture, and the appreciation by ambitious young Americans of the opportunity that was now offered to step out beyond the narrow limits which had hitherto confined them in their search for scholarly knowledge. All this Mr. Gilman brought about by the force of his own personality and by the power of his own ideas.



THE LATE DR. DANIEL C. GILMAN.

This is not the place to write the history of the Johns Hopkins University or to trace in detail the revolutionary effect that it has had upon higher education in America. In this REVIEW for January, 1901, at the time of Mr. Gilman's retirement from the presidency of the Johns Hopkins University, I was afforded an opportunity to express my opinion on these points. For the moment we do well to fix our minds upon the man to whose initiative are due all the splendid things that have followed from the foundation of the Johns Hopkins University.

Mr. Gilman's nature enabled him to go forward in constructive things with the help and sympathy of all who were associated with him. His usefulness was always marked by kindliness, and his constructive power was tempered with conciliation. He could find the middle way between opposing views, which enabled him to advance.

Mr. Gilman was a typical representative of the best and most elevating type of scholarship. There are those who claim the splendid word scholar for him who, with no atmosphere or sense of perspective, spends his life in the everlasting digging of a narrow field. For such a man, however, some other term more just and more descriptive than that of scholar will have to be found. A scholar is a man who lives in and with the world of ideas, who gathers inspiration from both men and books, whose life is shaped by ideas and enriched with them, and who, by his own power of construction, adds something to their number, to their power, or to their applications. Mr. Gilman was a scholar. He was a scholar who could execute and who had broad intellectual sympathies. He knew the world on its human as well as on its physical side, and in his passing we lose a distinguished and a noble figure whose leadership we shall be glad to look back upon as a splendid memory, and whose friendship those who were so fortunate as to enjoy it will always prize.



FERDINAND I., "CZAR OF THE BULGARS."

BY ALFRED STEAD.

THIRTY years ago the Concert of Europe, in solemn assembly at Berlin, created the Principality of Bulgaria, the constituent parts being fragments of the Turkish Empire. In the words of the Treaty of Berlin:

Bulgaria is to be an independent principality, subject to the Sultan, with a Christian government and a national militia. The Prince of Bulgaria will be freely chosen by the Bulgarian nation and accepted by the Sublime Porte, with the approval of the great powers; no member of a reigning European family can be elected Prince of Bulgaria: in case of a vacancy of the throne the election will be repeated under the same conditions and with the same forms; before the election of the Prince, an assembly of notables will decide on the constitutional statute of the principality at Tirnova. The laws will be based on the following principles: difference of religion forms no hindrance to the exercise of all civil and political rights and the holding of public office; commercial treaties concluded with the Porte shall be binding on Bulgaria; she will not be able to introduce any changes in them without the consent of the power concerned; no transit duties can be charged on merchandise

passing through Bulgaria; the rights and privileges of foreign subjects, the right of consular jurisdiction and protection, as instituted in the capitulations and by custom, will hold good until abrogated with the consent of the powers concerned; Bulgaria will pay tribute to Turkey, and will take part in her debts; Bulgarians traveling in Turkey will be under Turkish law and subject to the Turkish authorities.

A very attenuated and meager skeleton of a state was this, produced by the wiseacres of Europe, each intensely jealous of the other,—and this small nation in embryo, peopled by peasants snatched from the administration of the Turk, would have had small chance of continued existence had it not pleased fate to find one who perhaps alone of all the princes of Europe could rule Bulgaria successfully. Prince Alexander of Battenberg was elected first Prince of Bulgaria in 1879, and reigned for some six years, during which Bulgaria's area was nearly doubled by the inclusion of eastern Roumelia, and the young state undertook her first war,—that against Servia. The Prince was marked by many fine characteristics, but was unable to withstand the constant pressure of Russia and the uncertainties of his subjects. Prince Alexander's abdication failed to give Bulgaria into Russian hands largely owing to the efforts of the Bulgarian patriot, Stambulov, but the task before the new ruler could hardly have been regarded as an enviable one. The impossibility of securing a Prince who should enjoy the support of the great powers led to an anxious interval, during which the Bulgarians fought for time. The election of Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg as Prince Ferdinand I. of Bulgaria in 1887 saved the situation and, although few realized it then, enabled Bulgaria to become a nation. The fates had provided the man for the situation, and only after twenty years can we realize how well he has filled it.

A MISSIONARY OF WESTERN IDEAS.

The materials with which he had to build were far from perfect. An inexperienced, intensely democratic people, but recently freed from the Turkish yoke, intensely suspicious of him as a foreigner with different and advanced ideas, and the strong disapproval of the great powers,—these make all the more noteworthy the success which has attended the efforts of Prince Ferdinand during twenty long years of missionary endeavor in Bulgaria. For in truth he has stood as a missionary of western culture and western civilized ideas in the country over which he rules, and by his example has led his people along the path of progress.

To understand the magnitude of the task accomplished by Prince Ferdinand we must remember that when he ascended the throne there was in reality nothing, and now there is much, with promise of more. A Roman Catholic set to rule over a Greek Orthodox people, an aristocrat called upon to direct the destinies of a democratic nation: the path of progress was bound to bristle with obstacles and dangers. The fact that his election did not receive the sanction of the great powers was really a blessing in disguise, since it forced the ruler and his people to be mutually dependent, knowing that beyond each other there was little to hope. The Prince declared, "I have become a Bulgarian," and worked day and night for "this people, so good, so simple, so frank, who have made me the trustee of their liberties, happiness, and peace."

The Bulgarian people at the time of his accession presented a very difficult problem. Democratic to an extreme, a mass of small, landowning peasants, their recent release from the authority of the Turk had accentuated their independence and self-sufficiency. Thrifty and industrious, blessed with magnificent physique, they were self-reliant and self-sufficient to a degree which, while aiding the nation to continue, did not make government easy for a stranger Prince.

All the strongest Bulgarian traits and characteristics were called to the front at the time of Prince Ferdinand's arrival, owing to the prominence attained by M. Stambulov, that Bulgarian patriot who, by Bulgarian methods and rugged strength, had saved his country from Russian annexation. For the first years of his reign the Minister overshadowed the Prince as Bismarck overshadowed the present Emperor of Germany, and during his probationary period Prince Ferdinand undoubtedly learned well the lesson which he has since taken as a fundamental idea,—that he alone shall be the strongest statesman in Bulgaria.

CREATING A MIDDLE CLASS.

Prince Ferdinand on ascending the throne found that his subjects were all of one class; there was no aristocracy, no middle class, and no merchants or moneyed class. A monotonous level of sturdy agricultural peasants, while excellent in itself, does not present many facilities for a ruler. And thus one of the first essentials was the creation of a

moneyed class. In twenty years much has been accomplished in this direction, and government has become correspondingly easier.

PARLIAMENTARISM IN BULGARIA.

The Bulgarian people have universal suffrage, but are not yet ripe for it. The parliamentary system has tended to hinder rather than to further national progress. The years of Bulgarian independence have been marked by constant parliamentary change, and the frequent exercise of the right of dissolution. From 1879 to 1905, counting only changes of prime ministers and ignoring the frequent reconstructions of cabinets, there have been nineteen cabinets. Thus it will be seen that had Bulgaria had to rely only upon its elected representatives for the direction or even inception of policy, it would have fared badly in this parliamentary chaos. The elections, although conducted by secret ballot, frequently show the influence of the government actually in power in the return of only a very insignificant fraction of the opposition. But all these details are inevitably attendant upon the possession of full parliamentary privileges by an unprepared people, and undoubtedly things must improve as time goes on. In the past, however, the one stable point in Bulgaria has been the Prince, and he has succeeded in maintaining a definite policy despite the constant parliamentary confusions.

ONE MAN IN SEVEN A SOLDIER.

Inevitably one of the principal cares of the Prince has been the military forces of the country, since it is largely by its army that a small European state remains independent. Other reasons, notably the Macedonian question, have tended to induce the Bulgarians to create an enormous army of very considerable value, although there has been only the short campaign against the Servians to enable its merits in practice to be judged. The Bulgarian people, numbering about 4,500,000, are able to put into the field over 300,000 men in time of war,—at least that is the paper strength. This means three out of every forty-five of the population, or one man out of every seven, would be under arms. Before the Russo-Japanese War, General Kuropatkin, on inspecting the Bulgarian troops, made them the compliment of calling them "the Japanese of Europe." It would, however, be easy to find fault with that description, since the Bulgarian soldier lacks many of the qualities of the Japanese. It is perhaps well also to quote the views of a most competent military observer:

> The force of the Bulgarian army lies in the defensive. It is not certain that they would show equal qualities in attack; the officers are not so highly trained or so efficient as formerly, owing to promotion being more a question of influence than of merit; the artillery, even the new quick-firers from Krupp, is not as good as had been expected; the munitions of war are not above suspicion, and, most important of all, it is doubtful whether there is a war chest at all commensurate with the size of the army to be supported in a war.

How far these criticisms are justified time alone can tell; but undoubtedly there is no tendency, either in Constantinople or Belgrade, to underestimate the military force of Bulgaria.

BULGARIAN ECONOMIC PROGRESS.

Economic and constructive matters have also received their greatest stimulus from the Prince, and to his initiative Bulgaria owes her high mileage of railways and two excellent harbors on the Black Sea, one of which alone cost a million and a half dollars to construct. Industrial development receives his special interest.

The very considerable resources of the country are still to be developed and worked, but as the new roads and railways intersect the land this will become increasingly easy. It is a boast in Bulgaria to-day that home-built railways are far more cheaply built and equally serviceable than those entrusted to foreign contractors. Many new roads are being constructed with the advent of the motor-car, and the Prince by his devotion to automobilism has brought lasting benefit to the country. His support of the arts and his really considerable excavation works for the unearthing of the very numerous Roman and other remains in Bulgaria deserve mention. It is indeed rather remarkable how little is known about the antiquities of Bulgaria. Financially, Bulgaria has made great strides, especially with regard to her foreign credit. Practically Bulgaria's credit is on a 5 per cent. basis, which for the former despised and rejected vassal principality is remarkably good showing.

Perhaps Prince Ferdinand's greatest work for Bulgaria has been accomplished outside its frontiers. By his constant travels throughout Europe and his visits to the courts of Europe he has made Bulgaria well known, and has created personal ties of inestimable value. His monument is the Bulgaria of to-day, founded on Bulgaria of 1879.



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FOUR OF THE SEASON'S SINGERS IN GRAND OPERA.

THE SEASON'S MUSICAL OUTLOOK.

BY LAWRENCE GILMAN.

A SEASON which will offer, in the course of five months, no fewer than 300 musical "entertainments" of the first class may well lay claim to be ranked as extraordinary; and this is taking account only of operatic, orchestral, choral, and chamber-music activities, leaving aside the appearances in recital of an army of pianists, violinists, 'cellists, and singers. Such is the degree of the musical edification which will be provided for New York in the season now opening. It is a program which, in its extent, at least, is almost appalling; yet it is not likely that it will prove too abundant a repast for a community which has already manifested beyond mistake a truly prodigious appetite for musical fare of the better sort. That this appetite is increasing in its demands and its capacity seems clear; and it is developing some new and interesting predilections. They are appearing principally in the field of opera, which still occupies the foreground in the musical prospect, as far as the general public is concerned; so let us first turn our gaze toward that glittering and crowded region of the tonal world.

The fact that, of the sixty-eight operas which are announced for this season's repertory at the Manhattan and the Metropolitan, seventeen are either wholly new to this country, or were produced here for the first time last year, is a striking indication of the alteration which has been effected in the attitude of the American public toward its operatic diversions.

That Mr. Hammerstein should continue to put his trust largely in the potential effect of new works is only natural; so we find him offering, for his coming season, a promising list of operas hitherto unheard (or, in the case of some of them, virtually unknown) in New York. His plans contemplate the production of these novelties: Massenet's "Jongleur de Notre-Dame" and "Griséli-dis"; the "Princesse d'Auberge" of the Belgian composer, Jan Blockx, and the "Dolores" of the Spanish composer, Tomas Breton, which was promised for last season, but withheld. He also announces a series of pantomimes of an unfamiliar kind. In addition to these actual novelties, he will produce, for the first time at the Manhattan and the second time in America, Richard Strauss' "Salome"; be-



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sides Verdi's "Othello" and "Falstaff," Saint-Saëns' "Samson et Dalila," and Bizet's "Pêcheurs de Perles"; and, as *media* for the display of Tetrazzini's amiable activities, a number of the creaking antiquities of older Italy will be brought forward, to the confusion of those who had imagined that contemporary taste had outgrown their somewhat elemental persuasions. For his prime sensation Mr. Hammerstein will put forward Mary Garden,—who, as Debussy's *Mélisande,* proved to the hilt her claim to rank among the most exquisite histrions on the lyric stage,—as the tempestuous *Salome* of Strauss and Oscar Wilde. In the Italian dramatic soprano, Maria Labia, he has secured a singing-actress whose European reputation is authentic. She is said to be a superb *Tosca,* and she will be heard first in that *rôle,* with the admirable Renaud as *Scarpia.* In addition to Labia, Mary Garden and Tetrazzini, we shall hear again, at the Manhattan, the still potent Melba. There are two new mezzo-sopranos, the American Mariska-Aldrich and the Italian Doria, in addition to Gerville-Réache. Among the new tenors are the Frenchman, Vallés, from Lyons; Taccani, from La Scala; and Colombini, from Odessa. Zenatello and Dalmores are retained. The baritones are those of last year: Renaud, Sammarco, Dufranne, Gilibert, Crabbe, and—it is hoped—Périer, the superlative *Pelléas* of last year. Vieuille, the French bass, is new; he was the original *Arkël* of "Pelléas et Mélisande" at the Opéra-Comique in Paris. Mr. Campanini will again exercise his masterful dominance over the orchestral forces.

At the Metropolitan Opera House, the new and hopeful administrators, Messrs. Gatti-Casazza, of Milan, and Dippel, of New York and Germany, have wisely taken a leaf out of Mr. Hammerstein's book, and have determined to lay stress upon certain productions of new works,—and strange it is to witness the preparations for an opera season in which greater emphasis is laid upon the works to be performed than upon the singers who are to perform them! It was not so in the consulship of Grau, nor in that of the ingenious Conried, save when the lure of a possible sensation entered into the question. That Messrs. Gatti-Casazza and Dippel have secured some interesting works seems not unlikely; though neither they nor Mr. Hammerstein have anything to offer us this year which compares in promise of artistic significance with last season's "Pelléas et Mélisande" and "Louise." We shall hear, though, if the plans are carried through, the "Tiefland" of the pianist-composer, Eugen d'Albert, an adaptation of Angel Guimera's Spanish tragedy, "Marta of the Lowlands," which, as a play, has been twice produced in New York; the Italian Catalani's "La Wally"; Goldmark's transposition into operatic terms of Dickens' "Cricket on the Hearth," —to be done in English; "The Pipe of De-

sire," by the American composer, Frederick S. Converse, which was produced in Boston several years ago; Laparra's "Habanera," which won acclaim at the Paris Opéra-Comique early in the year; Tschaikowsky's "La Dama di Picche" ("The Queen of Spades"); Smetana's "Die Verkaufte Braut," which has figured upon Metropolitan prospectuses for several years; Puccini's "Le Villi,"—the immature first work of the composer of "Tosca" and "Madame Butterfly"; and, as a possibility, a still uncompleted score by the composer of the perennially delightful "Hänsel und Gretel,"—"Königskinder," which, as "The Children of the King," is to be done in an English version.

It cannot be said that any of these operas bids fair to be of first-rate artistic importance,—in this respect the Metropolitan is no more brilliantly equipped than is the Manhattan, so far as its wholly new productions are concerned. "La Dama di Picche" and "Die Verkaufte Braut" are virtual classics, of a minor order, and of no extraordinary significance. Puccini's "Le Villi" is far from typical of its composer's gifts in their best estate; nor has Catalani's opera been acclaimed as extraordinary. Whether "Tiefland," "The Cricket on the Hearth" (which is highly regarded in Germany), "Habanera," or "Königskinder" will reveal uncommon excellences, remains to be demonstrated, while "The Pipe of Desire" has already disclosed itself as something a little less than epoch-making. But to reproach either the Metropolitan or the Manhattan managements for their failure to discover new masterpieces merely because a certain demand for them exists, would be as churlish as it would be absurd. It is doubtless sufficiently gratifying to be able to feel that, when the new masterwork *does* emerge, there will be a friendly market awaiting it.

Of singers the Metropolitan tells a glowing tale. Among those who will return to audiences familiar with them, are Olive Fremstad, Geraldine Farrar, Emma Eames, Johanna Gadski, Berta Morena, Marcella Sembrich, Louise Homer; and, among the men, Bonci, Caruso, Burrian, Burgstaller, Reiss, Scotti, Goritz, and Campanari. The superb *Amfortas* and *Wotan* of other seasons, Anton van Rooy, will be missed, as will the imperturbable Plançon; instead, we shall hear these new baritones: Fritz Feinhals, of Munich, Walter Soomer, of Leipsic, Jean Noté, of the Paris Opéra, and Pasquale Amato, from La Scala. The American basses, Allen Hinckley and Herbert Witherspoon; the tenors, Carl Jörn, from the Berlin Royal Opera, and Erik Schmedes, from Vienna, are other important newcomers among the men. On the distaff side, among the newcomers, the one upon whom the fondest hopes are based is the famous Bohemian



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MAX FIEDLER. (New Boston Symphony conductor.)

CLEOFONTE CAMPANINI. (Chief conductor at the Manhattan.)

ARTURO TOSCANINI. (The Metropolitan's new conductor.)

soprano, Emmy Destinn, whose effective performances of such parts as *Salome*, *Madame Butterfly*, and *Aida* are scarcely less celebrated than her spirited quarrels with her equally famous rival, Miss Geraldine Farrar. Miss Destinn will make her début, it is announced, in "Tiefland." Another singer from whom interesting things are fairly to be expected is the Spaniard, Maria Gay, whose *Carmen* has created somewhat of a sensation abroad. We shall also wait upon the doings of Ester Adaberta, an Italian soprano; Frances Alda, who is said to hail from La Scala; Berenice James, an American; Félicie Kaschowska, who will sing German soprano *rôles;* Leonora Sparkes, an Englishwoman; Marianne Flahaut, a contralto from the Paris Opéra; and Matja van Niessen-Stone, a contralto who is known here as a concert singer. As to the conductors, the Metropolitan speaks with justifiable confidence. Arturo Toscanini, the eminent Italian, comes to America with a notable record of artistic triumphs achieved at La Scala, in Milan, where he has demonstrated what is said to be a singular mastery of the Wagner music-dramas. He will reveal to us "Tristan" and "Götterdämmerung," as viewed through the Latin temperament. Gustav Mahler, who last season proved himself a conductor of indisputable skill and intelligence, will return, as will also the veteran Alfred Hertz. Important mechanical changes have been made in the opera house; the orchestra has been enlarged, the chorus reorganized and amplified, and new stage directors have been secured. That the new managers are undertaking their task in a spirit of genuine artistic seriousness seems clear: it is a manifestation both refreshing and strange in the recent administration of the Metropolitan, which has of late years struggled under a grievous burden of time-serving and,—not to put too fine a point upon it,—deplorable hypocrisy.

When we turn from the shining turmoil of the opera-houses to the comparative serenity and aloofness of the concert halls, we find an equal thundering of lustrous names, but less,—disappointingly less,—concerning new works. An enterprising authority has taken the trouble to count no fewer than ninety-two pianists and seventy-three violinists who will exhibit their art in these regions during the coming season. We need here concern ourselves, fortunately, with only the more eminent of these. Considering first the pianists, it is agreeable to find the remarkable German, Emil Sauer, who, a decade ago, made a memorable tour of this country, once more an American visitor. A versatile and impressive artist, he will have almost to himself those honors which fall to the lot of the celebrity who is comparatively a newcomer; for the majority of his rivals this season will be of recent familiarity,—Paderewski, who is in a class of his own; the Russian Lhévinne, who recalls his great countryman, Rubinstein, by his style and temperament; his fellow Slav, Gabrilowitsch; the Americans, Ernest Schelling and Fanny Bloomfield-Zeisler; the Englishwoman, Katherine Goodson, who plays with the force and brilliance of masculinity; and the Teutonic Germaine Schnitzer. Of those who have never before played in America, the foremost is the French pianist and composer, Cécile Chaminade.

It is a Russian, the youthful Mischa Elman, who leads the season's violinists. A veritable *Wunderkind,* as it seems, he has stirred Europe to extravagant expressions of admiration. The American, Albert Spalding, also comes trailing clouds of glory; and we shall hear, besides these, Arthur Hartman, Petschnikoff, another Russian; Sergei Kussewitzky, a famous double-bass player, and the distinguished 'cellists, Alwin Schroeder and Heinrich Warnke, besides an unfamiliar Englishman, Darbishire Jones.

As usual, New York will stagger under an embarrassment of orchestral riches. The New York Symphony, the Philharmonic, the Russian Symphony, and the People's Symphony societies, will continue in their accustomed ways, under their accustomed leaders; and there is on foot a plan for a number of symphony concerts to be given under the direction of Gustav Mahler. The Boston Symphony Orchestra will play under a new director, Max Fiedler, of Hamburg, who three years ago served as one of the conductors invited by the Philharmonic Society to demonstrate their capacities before this public.

As has been observed, no novelties of the first importance are promised to our patrons of the concert room. Even the Oratorio Society, which of late years has done yeomen's work in the promulgation of new works, declines this year upon Elgar's flaccid and sentimental "Dream of Gerontius," which it was the first to perform in this country, and Wolf-Ferrari's "La Vita Nuova," which it produced last year.



SOME OF THE HEROES OF A UNIQUE CAMPAIGN.

(Physicians of the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service who officered the San Francisco plague war: Top row—Officers G. A. Weyer, C. H. Woolsey, J. L. Heward, A. D. Prentice, P. M. Thomas, H. H. Hopkins. Middle row—Officers R. H. Creel, L. S. Schmitt, G. M. Converse, J. R. Hurley, Colby Rucker, Bruce Ffolks. Seated—Officers C. W. Vogel, H. A. Stansfield, Rupert Blue, Carroll Fox.)

SAN FRANCISCO'S PLAGUE WAR.

BY AUGUSTIN C. KEANE.

THREE hundred and nine thousand deaths from plague occurred in the six and one-half months between April 28 and November 9, 1907, in the Punjab Province of India. This same plague broke out in San Francisco on May 27, 1907. It threatened other California communities. California and the Punjab cover equal areas, while the population of the latter ten times exceeds that of the former.

As if destruction by fire had not brought suffering enough, the doom of a pestilential epidemic threatened San Francisco. Yet, just as the city has arisen upon a finer foundation since the catastrophe of April 18, 1906, so to-day San Francisco is almost wholly cleansed of plague and proofed against rats, the propagators of the epidemic. Comparison with the ravages of pestilence in India is hardly just, because there religious prejudice prevents the killing of rats, although the frightful mortality of human beings can be traced to an epizoötic developed among rodents and spread by their fleas. On the other hand, San Francisco has been saved by an unrelenting war upon rodents, a war without precedent, unique, and fairly marvelous in its proportions.

At the crucial moment a not-to-be-deterred energy moved forward, grasped the situation, wiped out pestilence, and has now made the city virtually invulnerable to epidemics. But few outsiders are acquainted with the work done there, work which by itself has made San Francisco probably the world's most sanitary city, and which, combined with the scale of reconstruction followed since the fire of 1906, will realize the first twentieth-century city.

THE PLAGUE'S EARLY OUTBREAKS.

When the plague evinced its virulence in September, 1907, the San Francisco authorities knew from former experience what to do.

Previously, in March, 1900, this pest had made its first appearance there. For four years it stirred darkly, claiming 121 victims from the date of the earliest recognized case till February, 1904, and of these cases only eight convalesced. An outbreak of plague is seldom disastrous at first; the disease apparently grows quietly, bursting forth every few years in a semi-mild way, but gathering strength all the while, till it suddenly flares out, sweeping a community from end to end with terrific mortality. So its initial appearance in San Francisco was not very fearful; yet it was quite bad enough. Dr. Rupert Blue, passed assistant surgeon in the United States Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service, took charge in combating it, and eradicated all signs of epidemic. Three years more and there were no further evidences of the disease. Then, in May, 1907, it cropped up again. Till September the city health department struggled against odds, and finally had to call in Dr. Blue once more.

The spread of infection might have been prevented with that first case on May 27, 1907, had not fate been ironically baffling in hiding all traces of where the disease was then latent. A sailor from the tug *Wizard* was brought in a moribund condition to the Marine Hospital, where he died without regaining consciousness. An autopsy confirmed the diagnosis of bubonic plague. Immediately efforts were made to discover where he had contracted the disease, so that it might be stamped out at once. But meanwhile the tug had left port and was lost off the coast of Mendocino. Hence, there was no means of ascertaining the source of infection; all the authorities knew was that a plague-spot threatened the city and they were helpless to obliterate it.

Probably other cases were occurring, but they passed unnoticed by doctors unacquainted with this malady. Not before August 12, 1907, was another definite instance of plague located. Here a boy died of it within eight days after the death of his uncle, whose illness had been diagnosed as rapidly fatal pneumonia. Indications point to the probability of the uncle's case having been incorrectly judged, and very likely many deaths from plague went down as "rapidly fatal pneumonia," mistaken by doctors inexperienced in the characteristics of pestilence. For instance, a mother who visited her brother dying of this "rapidly fatal pneumonia" brought back plague to her two daughters. But very soon local physicians became acquainted with the symptoms, and shortly plague cases were recognized at the rate of three and four daily. In one small crowded house where there were three beds in one room, each bed supplied its case. Summer came in full swing and, with the advent of warm, dry weather, the epidemic moved from Telegraph Hill out toward Lobos Square, appearing simultaneously in the Mission District, south of Market Street, and so threatening to spread generally over the whole city. Now, beyond doubt, plague had come into full sway.

Doctors became exceedingly observant of every suspicious case. Autopsies were held to determine the least symptom. Those experienced at the Marine Hospital grew feverishly watchful and lent their best assistance. The city Board of Health turned its every energy to combating a disastrous epidemic, and under the direction of Dr. Watkins, city health officer, rose to the situation. Dr. Watkins in particular exerted his best efforts. But the doctors were all handicapped by lack of proper training to grapple with the plague, which was daily looming larger. For the convenience of business, newspapers said nothing to increase general alarm. Nevertheless, the task of wiping out the plague rapidly mounted beyond the abilities of those fighting it. An epidemic of virulent force was imminent, and those in whose charge rested the health of San Francisco realized this.

THE CITY APPEALS TO FEDERAL AUTHORITY.

In September Mayor Taylor telegraphed President Roosevelt asking for expert assistance to avert the threatening danger. He also asked that Dr. Rupert Blue, who is recognized as America's greatest plague expert, be sent into San Francisco with his corps. The President immediately responded, and Dr. Blue arrived on September 11. As soon as he had taken in the situation Dr. Blue realized its gravity, and wired back to Washington. Not at that time, and indeed during no subsequent period, was the danger of an epidemic accompanied by a high death-rate half so great as the danger of foreign ports shutting off communication with San Francisco or of the city's being compelled to place itself under quarantine. Therein lay the real danger during the incipient stages of the epidemic, a threat against San Francisco's commercial prosperity and one which prompt action alone could avert. Surgeon-General

Walter Wyman at Washington ordered into San Francisco Officers Stansfield, Fox, Long, Vogel, Creel, and McCoy, all of whom had fought plague and cholera in the Philippines. Ahead of these came Passed Assistant Surgeon Colby Rucker, who had been in the previous San Francisco epidemic, and nearly died of yellow fever in New Orleans. Others entered upon the work later. But Dr. Blue straightway assumed charge, rented a building in Fillmore Street to be fitted up as headquarters, and at once set about organizing his forces for the campaign.

A PERFECTLY ORGANIZED CAMPAIGN.

It is safe to say that never has any similar campaign been fought under more perfect organization or done its work more thoroughly. Stupendous as was the task confronting these men in attempting to eradicate an epidemic which had already made sure its foothold, just as stupendous was their conception of how to conquer the pestilence itself and make a repetition of it impossible. Everything was placed on a strictly military basis. The city was divided into thirteen districts, with an officer over each, similar to the division of a regiment into companies. Each district commander had his local headquarters, from which he carried on operations like the captain of a company of soldiers. Graded under him were four classes of workers: inspectors, assistant inspectors, foremen, and each foreman with five laborers, in a system parallel to the organization of petty officers and privates in the army. The men were all picked carefully, and put under absolute discipline from the outset.

At first slight difficulties arose because politicians considered that these jobs would be sinecures good to get their friends' friends into. Perhaps politicians did have some influence up to November 25, while San Francisco was paying the bills, but when the supervisors found that the expenses had become too great for the local treasury, depleted as it was by reconstruction projects after the fire, and asked for federal assistance in financing the plague-war, an end came to this division of spoils. Thus, the city had paid its laborers $18 for a week of five and one-half days; the federal Government paid the same men $15 for a week of six days. The Government's outlay reached $1100 a day, and every cent of that sum was made to mean something. In order to inspire these laborers to do their best, the principle of promotions went into practice, and those whose positions corresponded to non-commissioned army officers received warrants of appointment. When they left they were given an honorable discharge, providing their service had covered three months' capable work,—and no one whose work was incapable remained three months in the service. As a result, from Dr. Blue right on down to the last laborer, each man in the campaign exerted himself to the utmost in attacking the plague, striving to be an efficient factor in the campaign.

But it was a campaign without precedent. No model of procedure existed, and not only did original lines of attack have to be planned out, but the men at the top even had to determine just what should form their paraphernalia, from the best means of squirting disinfectant into a sewer to the method of bookkeeping by which the cost of that disinfectant should be entered. Not alone was there a growing epidemic to fight, but the weapons and ammunition for that fight had to be invented. Dr. Blue appointed Dr. Rucker executive officer in charge of the Fillmore Street headquarters. Before a single move had been made in the field of active fighting Dr. Rucker had to foresee every need of the campaign. To him fell the preparation of orders for issuance, the arrangements for keeping accounts, passing upon the personnel of laborers, providing an adequate scheme for filing all records and statistics of the campaign, and a thousand and one other possible contingent details.

For instance, as a working basis, a big map of San Francisco was obtained to show the spread of contagion month by month, and upon it was marked with colored pins each place in which a plague case had appeared either among humans or rats, the color of the pins being different for each month; the map also showed the progress of work in exterminating rats and their return to any locality once cleaned out. All well and good, but pins can be bought with only three or four different colors. It became necessary to devise a scheme for getting pins of a great many different colors. To paint them would not do; paint comes off when dry. For a day and a half this apparently insignificant problem foiled solution. Then suddenly Dr. Rucker thought of having the pinheads dipped in variously tinted sealing wax. Such is only a very small instance of the minutiæ with which this campaign was worked out, and every such detail had to be foreseen before the men could enter upon actual opera-

tions. One more persistent "little difficulty" arose in getting tags to mark the captured rats. It was against rodents that the campaign focused itself, and every one had to have a tag showing (1) where caught, (2) when caught, and (3) by whom caught. Very simple? Yes, but the tag must be waterproof, must not tear even when wet, and though wet, ink must not run upon it. Every imaginable type of tag was tried, and it took two months of scouring America before a satisfactory one was found. The threat of pestilence raging into an uncontrollable epidemic had so grown that it had to be grappled immediately, and within a week of the arrival of Drs. Blue and Rucker their forces were fully prepared to begin active warfare.

RATS THE PLAGUE'S PRIME AGENTS.

Because rats are the chief agents in spreading the plague contagion, against them the campaign was directed. The close association between plague among human beings and that among rats is proved conclusively by numerous cases. A quaintly pathetic instance is that of two small boys who had been infected with the disease and were under treatment at the Pest Hospital. Dr. Blue, anxious to locate the source of their infection, sat himself upon the cot of one of the youngsters one morning, and began a fatherly chat: "What do you like to do most, my little fellow?" "I guess playing is most fun," the boy answered. "Of course," agreed the doctor, "but what kind of playing?" "Oh, there's a barn near our house, and we plays there most of the time," said the youngster. "A barn," repeated Dr. Blue, scenting his goal; "a barn's great fun! How do you play there?" "Well, the last thing we played was funeral," explained the little fellow. "You see, me and that boy in the bed over there, we found a dead rat, and of course it oughter be buried, so we had a funeral for him." There was no need of questioning further to find the source of infection. Even more direct evidence is the case of a family five members of which contracted the contagion. On November 19 the man of the family was reported to the authorities to be a victim of plague. He died during diagnosis. The family was all examined and a well-developed case found in the youngest baby. Next morning the mother fell ill of the same infection. She died on December 3, and two days later another of her children, two years old, and the grandmother as well, both developed the disease. Of the whole family, a baby boy, eighteen months old, alone escaped. Yet no evident focus of infection exhibited itself. They were clean, tidy Germans, scrupulous about their dwelling, which was situated over a well-ordered store. It was difficult to see whence the disease had come. However, floorings within the house and the wood surfacing of the back yard when torn up revealed the carcasses of nineteen plague-stricken rats. Thereafter there could be no question of the source of infection. It meant that rats as agents in carrying contagion must be exterminated.

TRAPPING BY WHOLESALE.

The attack upon rats followed four main lines. In the first place the animals were trapped. It was not promiscuous trapping, but systematic and accurate. From each district headquarters foremen and laborers armed with traps went out every morning, while upon a map on the wall of their particular headquarters pins showed where the individual bands were skirmishing. At the outset rats were caught at the rate of 13,000 per week. Now rat-catchers, whose enthusiasm is intense, are decrying the fact that they have wrought such havoc in the rat population that their present rate is only 4200 for each week's catch, and it is becoming more and more difficult to find the rodents, because their numbers are so diminished. Daily the men empty their traps, and the captured rats are immersed in bichloride of mercury, which kills both the rodent and its parasites. Then, immediately, the rats are sent to the laboratory under the combined charge of a skilled pathologist and an expert bacteriologist, both of whom are graduates of the Washington Hygienic Laboratory. There each rat is scientifically examined, and if it is found to be plague-infected the tag is read to find out where, when, and by whom that rodent was caught. The district headquarters whence the rat came is notified by telephone and ordered to clean out the plague there located,—to clean it out by fumigating the special source of the disease and by giving the four contiguous blocks a thorough sanitary overhauling. For fear the 'phone message should chance to go astray, written orders also are mailed to the district commander, and it is made certain that the plague cannot spread from that particular spot.

The greatest advance that has been made



THE DAY'S CATCH OF A SINGLE BAND OF WORKERS.

(After immersion in a tub of bichloride of mercury the rats are removed from a trap and tagged "for sending" to the "ratatorium.")

in this war upon pestilence has come in the treatment of plague-infected rodents with the same scrutiny as is given human plague cases. Heretofore, the human cases alone have been observed with a view to stopping the contagion. Now, where there is found to have been any contact with infected rats an eight-day watch is kept to stop any possible development of the disease. From a sanitary standpoint, whether human or rat, the plague cases are treated exactly alike. In addition to this, all trapped rats are skinned and microscopically examined. The skinning is done by laboratory assistants who started as raw recruits but have become so fired with the enthusiasm of their leaders that some of them skin an average of 500 rats a day, and are now so expert that they can distinguish an infected one with the naked eye. But each rodent is examined under microscope by two scientists, who make cultures and determine definitely which ones are infected. Five varieties of rats have been found in San Francisco: (1) the big gray Norway rat (*mus Norwegicus*), which is commonest; (2) the brown Indian rat (*mus rattus*); (3) the red rat (*mus Alexandrinus*); (4) the house mouse (*mus musculus*), and (5) a rare hybrid cross between (1) and (2).

Certain of the rats, instead of being killed by immersion in bichloride of mercury, are chloroformed. This of course also kills the rat's fleas, which are later combed out of its fur. Then the fleas so got are preserved in phials of alcohol, each phial containing the parasites of a single rodent. This is done for the studying of the fleas, which carry the germ of plague from rats to humans, and also because of the supposition that the number of fleas per rat is important in relation to the virulence of epidemic among humans, since a flea will not ordinarily leave a living body unless crowded off by the excessive number of other fleas upon the same body; by this hypothesis the seasonal prevalence of pestilence can be explained. The fleas so found are studied by an expert entomologist, who classifies them and determines what has been their part in the spread of plague. Of the three forms of plague, that which appeared in San Francisco, the "bubonic," is contracted through the skin, and a germ-laden flea quickly infects its victim. Five varieties of fleas have been found upon rats in San Francisco: (1) sand fleas (*pulex irritans*); (2) rat fleas (*ceratophyllus fasciatus*); (3) mouse fleas (*ctenopsylla musculi*), (4) dog fleas (*ctenophalus canis*), and (5) the plague fleas of India (*pulex cheopis*). About 10,000 fleas were so identified. Among these the proportion ran: *ceratophyllus fasciatus,* 68.07 per cent. (its host being the *mus Norwegicus*); *pulex cheopis,* 21.36 per cent.; *pulex irritans,* 5.57 per cent.; *ctenopsylla musculi,* 4.48 per cent., and *ctenophalus canis,* 52 per cent. These figures bear out the contention that the *cera-*

tophyllus fasciatus is the germ-carrying flea of America, where 80 per cent. of the fleas belong to this species.

Attacking the plague with this accurate aim, the worst danger spots of the disease were very speedily located and put into a sanitary condition. In one place, where not even a basement existed to harbor the rats, thirteen infected ones were caught. Their nest was traced to an adjoining yard, where an innocent-appearing lumber pile screened masses of decayed refuse. Needless to say the yard was immediately cleared and disinfected. Again, in a rather prepossessing residence both rat and human cases of plague appeared. Here the rodents were discovered reveling in garbage carelessly thrown under the house, an accumulation of garbage which it took ten days to burn. Most menacing of all was the appearance of plague in the markets. In one nine infected rats were found within a week's time. The owner of the market became very much wrought up and anxiously fulfilled every direction for freeing his place of pestilence. He concreted all his floors to drive the rodents away, and installed sanitary chicken-coops to prevent their getting any food; the authorities thoroughly cleaned the four blocks next contiguous, and to-day there is not a safer market, sanitarily, in the city. Yet the sureness of this plan of attacking plague would have been nullified but for the treatment of rat cases with the same attention as the human ones received.

SYSTEMATIC USE OF POISON.

Parallel to this method of trapping rats ran a systematic plan for poisoning them. Bands of men in the various districts set out each morning armed with buckets of poisoned bread which had been cut into cubes. They sought out the rat strongholds and laid the poison about, making a definite record of the amounts and places in which it was set. Excessive care had to be taken that the poison was placed where only rodents would find it. Later, visits to these places showed how much of the poison had been taken, and hence as a conclusion how many rats had been killed. The poisoners within a district would start at one end of their allotted area and, setting their bait for the rodents, move gradually toward the other end till they had covered the whole district systematically. Yet, many as were the rats exterminated through trapping and poisoning, these methods proved unavailing, because the breeding rate of rats beats any such modes of attacking them.

ATTACKING THE RATS' FOOD SUPPLY.

Since both trapping and poisoning failed as weapons to rid the city of rodents, others had to be resorted to. Thus came the third way of killing rats, which was by starvation. The plague fighters attacked the rats' food supply. Not only must the existing sources of food be cleaned out, but any possibility of refuse again collecting where rodents might get at it must be prevented. Of course, this meant care in disposing of garbage. It also meant work for the authorities carrying on the campaign to impress upon people everywhere the necessity of using sanitary garbage cans. Records show that more than 75,000 such metal cans, provided with tight-fitting lids, have been installed. Considering what a number of ordinarily cleanly housekeepers use cans of this type anyway, the fact that 75,000 additional ones are now in use typifies the thoroughness with which these men have gone about their work. In a single one of the districts into which the city had been divided for the war of sanitation 12,000 new cans were brought into use; in District 1, covering 100 blocks, the number reached 4172, or 41.72 new metal garbage cans for each block. One can hardly emphasize too strongly the significance of these figures in exemplifying the completeness which marked the enforcing of detail in the work done by Drs. Blue and Rucker and those under them. Getting people to dispose of their garbage in this way was but a detail in the real assault upon the rats' food supply. For instance, entrances to all markets had to be screened, sanitary chicken-coops installed, stables had to be provided with metal-lined feed and refuse bins, and the historic function of the rodent to remove waste products has had to be undertaken by the citizens themselves.

In many cases stable owners and others have refused to do their share in the plague fight. Very noteworthy in this regard is the struggle between the authorities and the proprietors of certain hog-pens on the outskirts of San Francisco. Beneath the flooring of those hog-pens refuse has been accumulating for years, and rats fattened and thrived upon it. Every demand that these sinks of filth be cleaned was met with rebuff from the owners. Finally a band of laborers from one of the district headquarters went into the place and tore out the flooring. They uncovered beneath the very pen in which hogs were fattened for choice pork a mass of rotting refuse, the value of which, when turned into



THE "RATATORIUM," WHERE TAGGED RATS ARE SKINNED PREPARATORY TO MICROSCOPIC EXAMINATION FOR INFECTION.

(These men can individually skin more than 500 rats a day.)

fertilizer, has been estimated at $30,000.

This, also, exhibits the determined methods pursued in cleaning up the city. Where the inspectors saw that certain places needed cleansing, the proprietors of those places were requested to do the necessary work, and if they ignored repeated requests accompanied by warnings they suddenly discovered a stronger hand cleaning out and tidying up in spite of vain protests.

MAKING BUILDINGS RAT-PROOF.

As an inevitable corollary to destroying the rat's food supply came the wiping out of its habitation. Here, again, careful investigation was followed by drastic measures. Justified by the realization that rats could not exist in San Francisco without food and homes, no stone was left unturned in the purpose of making this city rat-proof. To each district headquarters was attached a storeroom stocked with tools necessary for this branch of the campaign. Each inspector turned in reports upon specially prepared blanks requiring entries under heads that covered every phase of the work. Acting upon these reports, wrecking crews were furnished with proper tools and sent to help property owners to carry out the directions of Dr. Blue and his assistants, or after condemnation proceedings by the board of health to do the work where the property owners refused compliance. Thus, where five stables abutted upon a space of eighty feet by twenty feet square, with a lodging-house near by, such a home for rats existed that two human and twenty-six rat cases of plague came inevitably. Drastic measures had to be taken. Result: three two-story houses destroyed.

However, the plague fighters confined themselves to constructive principles wherever possible. The aim was to exclude rats from the home of man by making houses rat-proof. Three chief lines were followed in accomplishing this: (1) Basements or ground floors were required to be made of some material impervious to rats. Concrete proved the best adapted for this purpose. Also, it necessitated the replacing of wooden sidewalks with concrete ones. Up to June 30, 1908, 3,979,864 square feet of concrete has been laid in District 12 alone, according to directions issued by those attacking plague, while in the smallest of these sanitary districts has been laid 795,596 square feet of concrete. Throughout the city the work has attained a similar standard of thoroughness. Furthermore, (2) buildings had to be properly screened near the ground level so that they would not be accessible to rodents.

Screening was adopted especially in the cases of stables, where the walls have been concreted for two and one-half feet above the ground. In a way stables have been a target for these sanitary measures, since they almost more than all other places attract rodents. Over 200 rats were trapped in one stable, and, incidentally, the owners objected strenuously to the orders they received to clean up. Yet, considering that the conditions in San Francisco after the fire were adverse to sanitation, it was imperative that places that could be made sanitary should be made so without any delay. Hence, the ordinance which the Board of Supervisors passed at the request of the plague-fighters insisting upon sanitary regulations for stables. It required not only concrete floors and side walls for two and one-half feet above the ground, but also that sewer connections be of concrete and that manure and feed bins be metal-lined. Several thousand stables have thus been made rat-proof, and in some districts every stable has fulfilled every requirement of the ordinance. One of the districts had 1011 stables. Of these 586 fulfilled every requirement of the ordinance; 159 complied in all but some single minor detail; 46 have so far complied only in part, and 220 have been vacated. The significance of these figures points out that of 1011 stables those fulfilling ordinance regulations in full or with a single exception, together with those vacated, represent in all 965 abated nuisances of this sort. Incidentally, in another district, 17,750 nuisances were abated up to June 30. Finally, it was infection coming from a stable that led to the instituting of the last means of proofing houses against the intrusion of rodents.

One of the most persistent plague spots was at Lobos Square, where a refugee camp had been located after the fire. The camp itself, organized under the supervision of federal troops, was of a perfectly sanitary type. Yet here occurred fifteen human cases of plague. By tracking the rats it was found that a nearby stable served as a feeding and breeding place for them and as a source of the spreading of contagion in that neighborhood. The stable was cleaned at once. Plague cases continued. It was a problem where they now came from. The whole thing proved very simple: infected rats had left the stable and taken refuge under the houses of the sanitary camp, dying there. So long as they lived and the number of germ-carrying fleas on each rat was not excessive, the dwellers of the camp stood in no danger. But when an infected rat beneath a house had died, its parasites deserted the dead body to find a living one, carrying the disease with them. Therefore, to prevent the rodents finding a retreat beneath the houses, Dr. Blue ordered all the structures raised eighteen inches or two feet above the ground, thereby



SKINNED RATS READY FOR THE BACTERIOLOGIST.

(Flypaper on the walls shows one of the many precautions to prevent contagion being carried away from these rats by flies.)



FUMIGATING PREMISES IN WHICH PLAGUE HAD EVINCED ITSELF.

(A spray exterminating fleas and flea-eggs was freely shot about; oakum served to calk up cracks and crevices that germ-laden fleas might not escape; the walls, made airtight with bands of paper, confined the disinfecting fumes, and pots of burning sulphur destroyed all germs as well as germ-carrying insects in the place.)

making the rats' home accessible to cats and dogs. Thereafter not a single plague case occurred in this vicinity, and thus came about the third method of rat-proofing, by elevating frame structures.

Carrying through these plans of campaign was a big work, a work big with little obstacles to overcome. The process followed was simple enough: an inspector, told off to a definite section, visited all the premises in that section; if he found conditions bad, he left a written statement to that effect; if the declaration and directions of the statement went unheeded, a second one accompanied by a warning went to the property holders; in case the latter persisted in ignoring these, condemnation proceedings through the city Board of Health and frequently police court action ensued to compel a cleaning up. Bakeries supported their quota of rodents, and it was not always easy to make the bakers provide against them. Almost as bad as the worst places to be dealt with were the rag dens. One of these turned out its one human and two rat cases. But the State Board of Health co-operated with the federal plague-fighters, so that now all traffic in old rags is regulated on sanitary lines, and in addition no manure can be shipped out of the city but such as comes from rat-proof stables.

SEWERS, WAREHOUSES, AND WHARVES MADE RAT-PROOF.

It is patently impossible to describe every bypath covered in this campaign. Only certain of the main roads followed in attaining the objective of a city freed from plague have been enumerated. For instance, the rat-proofing of sewers which had been damaged by earthquake stands almost as an independent encounter with the epidemic. Still it was none the less important, since sewers are the recognized highway of rodents, deprived of which they cannot invest a city so quickly and completely as they can when able to scurry unhindered from place to place. All the crevices in the sewers where the rats could feed, hide, or breed had to be closed with cement and the sewers themselves made absolutely inaccessible. Again, warehouses are harboring-places for rats. To-day the warehouses of San Francisco, built of reinforced concrete in accordance with ordinance regulations, stand as veritable monoliths, into which the entry of the rodent is impossible. Finally, across the wharves rats have heretofore found access to San Francisco, and beyond doubt it was across the old wooden wharves that rats from ships which had visisited some distant plague center carried pesti-

lence into the city. Now it has been planned to build stone and concrete quays, to cost $30,000,000, in order to prevent rodents from ever again infecting San Francisco,—and the results will justify that outlay, since a recurrence of plague would threaten San Francisco's prosperity, just as going into quarantine would shatter its commercial supremacy. That was one of the big things the plague fighters had to see, but so broad, so extensive and complete was this warfare upon plague, one must in telling of it omit many of the big things. It is simpler to confine one's self to the actual, immediate fighting.

IMPROVED CONDITIONS AND METHODS OF TREATMENT.

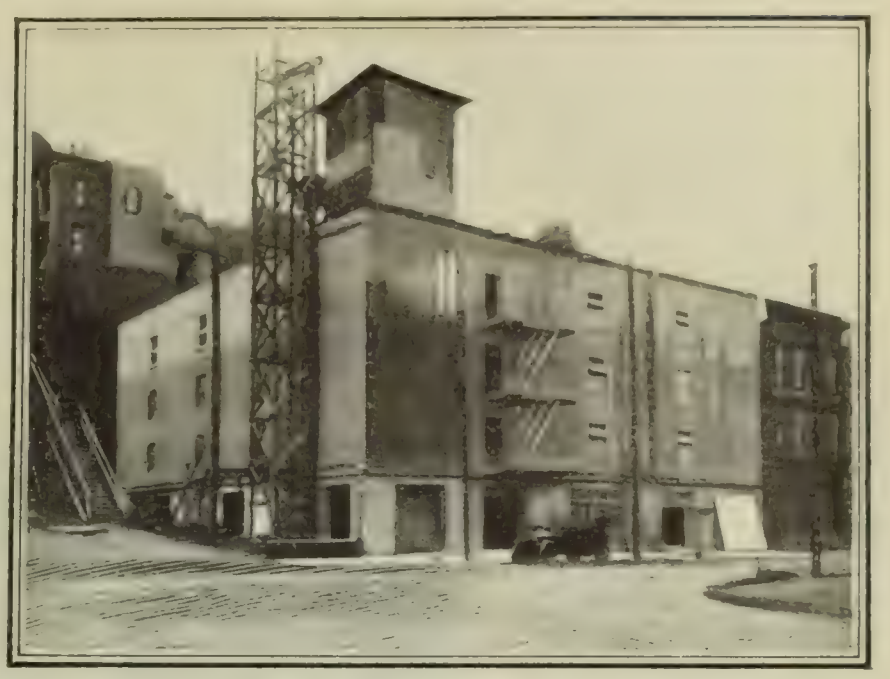
Side by side with exterminating rats and locating and cleaning the sources of infection ran the caring for those who had contracted the disease. No proper place for treating them existed. The old pesthouse was itself a monstrous culture of germs. Luckily it was burned to the ground, and an isolation hospital of the most improved type erected along lines suggested by Dr. Blue. This new hospital has been built to be kept perfectly clean of all possible infection. In addition, a sheet-iron fence six feet high entirely isolates the hospital, so that nothing can get either in or out except by the gates, which are "tight." This fence is interesting in that to make it perfectly "tight" it is sunken two and one-half feet into the ground and rests upon a concrete foundation, while its top is turned over to make it unscalable by smaller animals. Here trained nurses and skilled physicians give patients the best of care. At no time after the federal authorities took hold of the situation was there hit-or-miss work, for every case was worked down scientifically by experts. Why, to ascertain beyond any doubt, three special inspectors of the dead were appointed, and not a single burial took place unless the body had been viewed, the exact cause of death definitely ascertained, and an official permit issued. Everything was accurate. It is accurately known that up to January 30, 1908, when pestilence last attacked humans, and when the control of the epidemic became absolute, there had been 159 cases of plague, and of these but seventy-seven succumbed. It was competent treatment alone which kept the mortality down. During a nearly similar period, in the Punjab, 309,074 had succumbed out of 342,-217 cases of the plague. The salient point is that when the death-rate among victims of this disease was 90.60 per cent. in India, it was only 48.42 per cent. in San Francisco.

CO-OPERATION OF THE PUBLIC.

Then when the greatest part of the task was accomplished, and when the danger of a panic was passed because the worst features of the epidemic had been overcome, Dr. Blue instituted his campaign to educate the public. Previously the work had not received much publicity. Now arose the need of having people understand what had taken place and how they should avoid any recurrence of plague. Only an effective campaign of education could make permanently useful the results already achieved. Hence, Dr. Blue addressed business men, and Dr. Rucker went went the rounds of the improvement clubs, each setting forth actual conditions and urging that the work go on to make the city rat-proof for all time, as it must be to maintain its dominating position as gateway to the Orient. But the early days of spreading this propaganda were disheartening ones. The State Medical Society co-operated with the federal officers and called a public meeting, having sent out 600 invitations; just sixty people attended that meeting. Then Mayor Taylor appointed a Citizens' Health Committee of twenty-five members, twelve of whom were doctors. This committee, having Homer S. King as president; L. M. King, secretary, and Chas. C. Moore, chairman of the executive committee, succeeded in rousing popular enthusiasm so generally that meetings began to be held all over the city, the executive officer alone addressing seven in one day. It created a fund of $150,-000, and did excellent volunteer work in cleaning certain parts of the city. On March 21, 1908, a street banquet was held in celebration of the cleaning of the commission-house district, which had formerly supported more rats than any other one district. For this banquet tables were set in the middle of the street and 500 guests attended, including the federal officers, city officials, health authorities, prominent citizens, and members of various women's clubs. Literally it proved that the streets were "clean enough to eat from." A banner was flung out which read: "We have cleaned up. Go thou and do likewise!" The whole affair was unique and, in the tenseness of good-will, typically San Franciscan.

The federal officers who directed the plague war are emphatic in telling of their

appreciation of the aid given by this Citizens' Health Committee. Nor do they fail to point to the valuable co-operation of the city Board of Health, which assisted through backing condemnation proceedings, and of the Board of Supervisors, which passed ordinances of sanitation and included special appropriations in its budget, at the same time offering a reward of 10 cents for every rat caught by volunteers. There was further help that came from the outside. The Quarantine Station, under Passed Assistant Surgeon W. C. Hobdy, did its share to prevent foreign ports from cutting off communication with San Francisco. To this end every vessel leaving the city was fumigated, even ferryboats and the river steamers going to Sacramento. In one month 1500 boats were so fumigated. Everywhere was co-operation, co-operation on a grand scale.



REINFORCED-CONCRETE WAREHOUSE, A VERITABLE MONOLITH, INACCESSIBLE TO RATS.

(For a time the port of Ancon in the Canal Zone insisted upon a certificate with all imports from San Francisco showing that they had been stored in rat-proof warehouses; otherwise the imported cargoes were forbidden to be discharged.)

The State of California had its work to do as well. Nine cases of plague appeared outside of San Francisco, across the bay in Oakland. That meant that wholly to eradicate all danger of an epidemic other places must be cleaned. The towns from Martinez to Haywards, including the cities of Berkeley, Oakland, and Alameda, were organized under Passed Assistant Surgeon J. D. Long, who was detailed to the work by Dr. Blue. There, too, the campaign was pushed strenuously forward to make the communities proof against any recurrence of pestilence.

BRILLIANT GENERALSHIP.

Altogether it was a very big organization. When, within the next couple of months, the work will have been wholly completed, Drs. Blue and Rucker and the officers of their corps will return to headquarters; but one wonders about the men who served as noncommissioned officers and privates in this army. After almost a year's training they have become experts in sanitary warfare. Theirs has been a unique schooling.

Now this great, silent campaign is almost over. It has been generaled and officered as capably as any war ever fought. What has been accomplished by Dr. Blue and those under him could be accomplished by none but the most competent of men. There can be no reservation in the credit due Dr. Blue. His is a quiet nature, energized by a tremendous yet kindly determination. Throughout the whole of his work he modestly suppressed his own personality (so far as such a personality may be suppressed); he was there to accomplish something, and his whole power, mental and physical, concentrated itself upon that fact. Contemplating the goal of a city invulnerable to epidemics, he would reiterate emphatically, "We'll get there if it takes ten years!" The key to his nature lies in that "We'll get there!" Had Dr. Blue desired, with his authority, to forge ahead, attaining results, regardless of others, he could have quarantined San Francisco and cost the city millions of dollars in commercial prestige. But it was not "I'll get there!" It was "We'll get there!" and he sought to bring the citizens of San Francisco into the ranks of his workers. Fortunately he had as executive officer Dr. Rucker, whose indefatigable abilities as an organizer made it possible for those in charge to direct the efforts of as many as would ally themselves to the cause. The people came around; they carried out the plans of the federal authorities. They have made San Francisco the most sanitary city in the world.

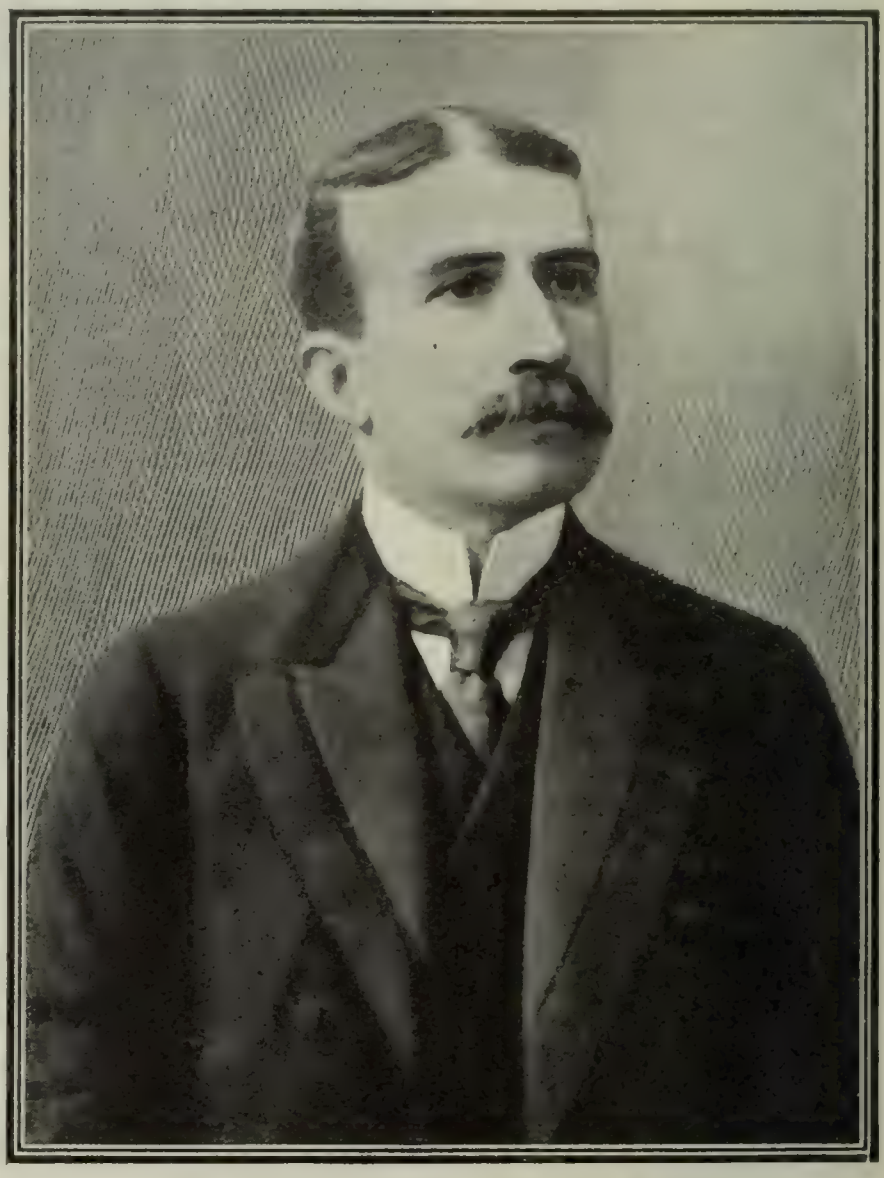
TWO SOUTH AMERICAN PRESIDENTS.

BY CHARLES M. PEPPER.

(Foreign Trade Commissioner, United States Department of Commerce and Labor.)

[While not so large as Brazil and Argentina, or so active commercially as Chile, the other South American countries are developing at a remarkable rate, and there is much of interest to Americans in current history as it is being made in Peru, Bolivia, Uruguay, and Paraguay. Mr. Pepper's experience and observation all over the continent have been unusual.—THE EDITOR.]

WHILE the United States is in the midst of a campaign to elect a President, two South American Republics, Bolivia and Peru, are entering upon fresh presidential terms. In the case of Peru, a new chief magistrate, Señor Agusto B. Leguia, has been inaugurated. In Bolivia, Col. Ismael Montes, the executive in office, has been continued ad interim for a year pending the choice of a successor to Dr. Fernando E. Guachalla, the President-elect, who died a fortnight before the day of inauguration.



SEÑOR AGUSTO B. LEGUIA, PRESIDENT OF PERU.

Both Señor Leguia and Colonel Montes have been identified with the forward commercial and development policy which is now so dominant on the West Coast. This is significant of the future.

Bolivian foreign commerce has doubled within less than a decade, and it now amounts to more than $30,000,000 annually. The United States, which formerly was not credited on the official returns with anything, although it shipped some flour and cottons, now sells goods in Bolivia valued at $2,500,000 a year, chiefly railway material and mining machinery. Peruvian international trade in ten years has gone up from $22,000,000 to $55,000,000 annually. Of this commerce between $13,000,000 and $14,000,000 is with the United States and $10,000,000 of it is through the port of New York. The past few months have seen a large increase.

Next to the Malay Straits, Bolivia is the world's chief source of the tin supply. In 1899 the output of the mines was 4300 tons, as against 44,000 tons in the Straits Settlement; in 1906, 17,000 tons, as against 57,000 tons in the Straits. The tin mines of Bolivia have been worked only superficially

and many known deposits are yet untouched. Since 1873 the Pulacayo silver mines at Huanchaca have added $125,000,000 to the world's wealth. The Potosi silver fields, exploited by the Spaniards for centuries, have centuries of fresh exploitation before them by modern methods. The Corocoro copper district and the unexploited district equal in richness any copper deposits on the southern continent. The Lake Titicaca oil fields are rich. Such statements are made by prospectors and mine boomers everywhere, but in the case of Bolivia they have title to respect because they are the substance of the reports made by mining experts in the employment of hard-headed American capitalists. The values of the leading mineral exports of Bolivia in 1906 are known to be approximately these: Tin, $18,000,000; copper, $1,250,000; silver, $2,000,000; bismuth, $750,000.

The Peruvian mining output in 1906 amounted to $12,600,000, to which copper contributed $4,980,000 and silver $4,865,000. In 1907 the copper output was largely increased by the Cerro de Pasco mines beginning shipments of copper bars from their smelter, and this American company is now shipping to New York copper in bars to the amount of 13,000 to 14,000 tons annually.

These items of foreign trade and of mineral products exported are a measure of the importance of commercial relations in the policies of the respective governments, and they are themselves suggestive of the importance of presidents who appreciate foreign commerce and the development which makes it possible.

THE PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGNS.

The elections took place last spring. The writer was in both countries during the campaigns and had the opportunity to observe the tendencies which were developing and also the personality of the candidates.

There was a significant sameness in both Bolivia and Peru. The campaign trend, so far as there was discussion, related to internal policies of the material sort, to the inducements which might be offered foreign capital for the working out of the material policies, to peace, and to cultivating the good-will of the United States. I never have known a campaign in a South American republic in which there was so little enunciation of the abstractions of which Latin-American statesmen are so fond, and so much effort to impress practical questions on the electors. In the demonstrations in honor of the candidates, while their virtues were eulogized by enthusiastic partisans, it was rare to listen to an Apostrophe to Liberty. Instead, the voters were told what the candidates could do for the country and what the country expected him to do.

It was universally recognized that Peruvians and Bolivians are in what has come to be called the "Root era." There was also talk of the Panama period. This was the sequel of Secretary Root's visit and the thoroughness with which in his public addresses and on other occasions the American Secretary of State had emphasized the fact that the Panama Canal is for South America as well as for the United States.

Why an interior country such as Bolivia, situated in the fastness of the Andes, should have an interest in the Panama Canal may not be apparent to those who are ignorant of the geography and the geology of South America. But Bolivia as a storehouse of mineral wealth finds the shortest course for its minerals to the Pacific Coast. Its existing commerce through Chilean and Peruvian seaports is 90 per cent. a West Coast commerce. Already it has felt the stimulus of Panama in the prospect of lower freight for its ores by the cheaper transportation which is possible through shortening the route. When the canal is once opened it will share all the benefits as much as if its own borders stretched along the coast.

PRESSING NEED OF RAILROADS.

For the development of Bolivia's vast mineral resources transportation is the prime factor. Railways mean that many new mines can be opened up, modern machinery imported and installed in them, and ores freighted to the coast at a charge which will leave something for mine owner and mine worker.

The construction of the Bolivian railways was inaugurated by General José Pando when he was President. Huge as Bolivia is, nobody knew it better than General Pando, for he had traversed its mountain passes and its river regions from the Amazon affluents to the summits of the Cordilleras. The base line of his railway policy was the pan-American link from the border of Argentina across the country north and south to Lake Titicaca. President Pando's first measure was to send a banker and a former resident of New York, Mr. Ignacio Calderon, to the United States as Minister, with instructions to secure American capital if possible, but if this were

not practicable to proceed to Europe. Bolivia had $12,000,000 cash capital, of which $10,000,000 had been received from Brazil as indemnity for giving up the disputed Acre rubber territory. With this as a groundwork, and with the knowledge that the building of the canal assured the permanency of the United States' influence, New York bankers were interested. After protracted negotiations Speyer & Co. and the National City Bank formed a syndicate, in which other financial interests joined, and contributed $15,000,000. With this joint capital of $27,000,000 the building of a thousand-mile railroad system began. It meant heavy investments in the tin, copper, and silver mines, and, later, probably the opening up of agricultural regions to settlement.



SEÑOR ISMAEL MONTES, PRESIDENT OF BOLIVIA.

Before the negotiations could be concluded President Pando was succeeded by Col. Ismael Montes, who had been a member of his cabinet and had accompanied him in the military expeditions to the Acre country. President Montes also knew Bolivia very well and knew its needs in the way of a transportation system. As a political leader he had handled many difficult questions and had shown much tact in securing the co-operation of the Bolivian Congress, in which the jealousies and rivalries of localities and some distrust of foreign influence had been manifested. As a man of affairs he pleased the American railway builders by his blunt business methods and his quickness in grasping the practical points of railway construction. It has been their testimony that they could not have found in the United States his equal for promptness and for ability in mastering technical subjects.

President Montes was to have been succeeded by a man in sympathy with his administration and with whom he had been closely associated in the political struggles which overturned the reactionary factions and opened the way for the development policy.

Some years ago, in toiling up one of the steep streets of La Paz, I noted a modest sign, "F. Guachalla, Abogado," and climbed a stone stairway to greet my old colleague in the Pan-American Conference at Mexico. He was, however, absent on a diplomatic mission. In the meantime I learned something of his political history. As a young lawyer he had been an enthusiastic Liberal. He had joined General Pando in the political revolution which upset the reactionary administration of President Alfonso. Then after active participation in public affairs at home he had been accredited as Minister to the United States, to Mexico, and to Venezuela. After presenting his credentials in Washington he had gone to Venezuela in order, if possible, as the representative of a disinterested South American country, to smooth out some of the difficulties between Venezuela and its neighbors. Later, Doctor Guachalla represented Bolivia in the Mexi-

can Pan-American Conference and was prominent in the debates. Then after a short period again in Washington he was transferred to the Argentine Republic in order to provide for the arbitration of the boundary dispute with Peru. From Argentina the natural transition was to Brazil, where, in connection with Doctor Pinilla, the Minister, he negotiated the Acre treaty. From Rio Janeiro Doctor Guachalla proceeded to London, and while Minister to Great Britain he also represented his country as one of the delegates to The Hague.

In the fall of 1907 Dr. Guachalla retired from his diplomatic position and returned to Bolivia to direct in person his campaign for the presidency. This he managed with force and skill, placating some unfriendly elements, conciliating old opponents, and securing the support of ex-President Pando, while holding that of President Montes, so that in May of the present year he was elected with scarcely a show of opposition.

After the shock which was experienced by those persons familiar with Bolivian affairs when the news cames from La Paz of the death of Dr. Guachalla on July 25, a fortnight before he was to be inaugurated, there was a natural curiosity as to the succession. There were two Vice-Presidents-elect, Señores Eufronio Vizcarra and Fidel Valdés, from different parts of the country, who had been chosen on the ticket with Dr. Guachalla, and who, if once inaugurated, would have filled the succession in order. The Latin American republics, unlike the United States, do not minimize the importance of this office, on paper at least. Most of them not only make provision for two Vice-Presidents, but also provide for the actual delegation of power by the President, who sometimes takes advantage of this authority and for a period permits the Vice-Presidents to exercise the functions of the chief executive.

But Bolivia, while fully provided against the contingency of a vacancy in the office of President, was apparently also not without provision for a prospective vacancy such as that caused by the death of the President-elect. The dispatches from La Paz stated that under the interpretation of the constitution President Montes would continue in office for a year, or during the interregnum pending the election of a new President. This was agreeable to the people at large, with whom his administration is popular, and when the Bolivian Congress met in August there was no friction.

Large sums of foreign capital are ready for investment as the assurance grows of internal stability and of good relations with the neighboring countries. How good those relations are appears when it is known that the delimitation of boundaries with Brazil is going on under terms of the Petropolis treaty; that under the arbitration of the Argentine Republic the boundary dispute with Peru is approaching settlement; that the long-standing boundary dispute with Paraguay is ceasing to be a cause of friction, while both Chile and Peru have made satisfactory treaties with Bolivia for the use of their seaports and have foregone the special concessions given them in the matter of discriminating duties.

The new international status is a more significant tribute to the country's progress. For many years the United States was the only country, outside of South America, which accredited a Minister to Bolivia. After Secretary Root's visit to South America the Legation in Bolivia was raised in the matter of salary to a dignified plane, and the influence of the United States, which the zeal and intelligence of Minister Sorsby had been fostering, was further strengthened. Now Great Britain, Germany and France have accredited resident ministers to Bolivia because their interests require such diplomatic representation.

PERU'S REMARKABLE PROGRESS.

Peru began its period of preparation for the Root era and for Panama long years back. The period may be said to have commenced in the early '70's of the past century, when Henry Meiggs, out of the guano profits, built the engineering wonders known as the Central and the Southern Railways from the coast over the Andes. There was further preparation when, after the last revolution, in 1895, the aspirations to secure political stability were supplemented by a determined and successful effort to maintain monetary stability. Peru was placed on the gold basis under the presidency of General Pierola.

Then the business influence made itself felt in administration and in policies. The initial American investment in the Cerro de Pasco district, which, including the mines, the smelter, and the railway, now approximates $20,000,000 of actual expenditure, was made in this period. The tendency to recognize the civil as distinct from the military elements in the government was emphasized when in 1903 Miguel Candamo,

who had been for many years president of the Lima Chamber of Commerce, was elected President of the republic. He began his administration with various measures of a business character tending both to encourage local development and to invite foreign capital. One of the measures which he urged on the Congress and which was passed was that for the creation of a permanent and exclusive railway fund. President Candamo died within a year after his inauguration, and though a period of political uncertainty followed there was no "upset." José Pardo, who had been Minister of Foreign Relations, succeeded him. Señor Pardo was a member of one of the strong families of Peru, with several brothers prominent in business affairs and he himself a sugar planter. Under his administration further American capital has gone into Peruvian mines, including $3,000,000 in the Rio Blanco smelter. The irritating dispute between the government and the Peruvian Corporation of London, which had taken over the state railways under a fifty-five years' lease in lieu of the national debt, was settled, and the distrust of English capital regarding Peru as a field for investment was removed.

In all the fiscal and economic policies of the past fifteen years there has been one prominent figure,—in the background at first, but gradually coming out till he was in the forefront. In 1903, when the government was anxious to do what it could to further the Pan-American railway project, it was at sea as to the means by which this could be done and the investment of foreign capital secured. My own suggestion was the enactment of a law setting aside permanent revenues, but I was not well enough informed to indicate from what source the revenues should come. The Secretary of the Treasury, quick as lightning, remarked, "We can get it from tobacco," and tobacco was made the basis of the legislation which is now yielding $1,000,000 a year for railway purposes. This Secretary of the Treasury was Agusto B. Leguia, a young man of very keen intellect and much force of character. He had been, I was told, a bookkeeper on a sugar plantation and had saved money out of his salary in order to go to a commercial school and learn English. Then he had dipped into several sorts of business, including insurance, had taken a hand in politics, and had held some minor government positions in which his industry and his aggressiveness had recommended him to the cabinet ministers.

THE CAREER OF PRESIDENT LEGUIA.

While young Leguia was soliciting insurance it is related of him that he decided to make a visit to the head office in New York. On the way up the coast he stopped at Guayaquil and one or two other points, and "wrote" a million dollars. On reaching New York he sought an interview with the president of the company, but that busy man, after keeping him waiting all day in the outer office, sent word that he would have to come again. The next day the patient young Peruvian was on hand and was again kept waiting. But not for long. He wrote a brief note and sent it in to the president. It was to the effect that he had written a million or so of extra insurance, but if this particular company's president hadn't time to see him within two minutes he could find another company which would take it. In half a minute he was admitted.

Señor Leguia remained in New York for some time and then returned to Peru to take a more active part in politics and in business. In the latter pursuit he became the head of one of the largest sugar companies. As Secretary of the Treasury he had to appear before the Congress frequently and defend his administration or urge legislation. The vigor and success with which he did this gave him fresh title to respect. The old leaders didn't like this pushing forward, but the young men were with Leguia, and his following in the Civilista party became dominant. The presidents to be were in its ranks, and in course of time it came to be understood that Señor Leguia would succeed President Pardo. He retired from the cabinet in order to make his canvass. His platform was a long one, but there were many questions which needed consideration, and there was no lack of directness in the manner in which his views were outlined. Irrigation and European immigration were two main points. His declarations were especially friendly toward the foreign interests domiciled in Peru.

There was a censorious opposition which, through an aggressive newspaper, put up a "nasty" campaign against him, full of personalities and inuendoes. But the opposition, though it had some strong men with patriotic records, did not succeed in concentrating on a candidate. The country enters on the period of the new presidency with the Panama Canal sentiment paramount and with a self-made man of business training at the head of affairs.



THE SKYSCRAPERS OF LOWER NEW YORK CITY AS SEEN FROM THE NORTH RIVER.

(Recent tall buildings have changed the sky line materially. Trinity Church spire, which a quarter of a century ago was so conspicuous as to be a landmark from the lower bay, can be barely discerned on the extreme right of the picture.)

TALL BUILDINGS AND THEIR PROBLEMS.

BY HERBERT T. WADE.

THE recent announcement that the first skyscraper to be erected in New York City was to be demolished to make room for a larger structure which would rise to a height of thirty-eight stories came at an interesting time, inasmuch as the present year has witnessed the completion in that city of several of the loftiest and largest structures known in the annals of architecture, while at the same time there have been filed with the building department of the city plans for office buildings even higher and greater than those which to-day stand out so prominently on the skyline of Manhattan. It is worth recalling that the first skeleton-construction building, from which the modern high office building has been evolved, dates back only to 1883, when the Home Insurance Company erected such a structure in Chicago. Following this pioneer effort at Chicago came the Rookery, supported by 150-foot vertical columns, and the Tacoma Building, fourteen stories in height and the first to carry its walls on the steel construction. In fact, it was soon realized by architects that by using steel columns and beams, terra-cotta arches in place of the heavier brick, and speedy and safe elevators, strong, useful and serviceable buildings could be constructed to considerable height.

While the Chicago prototype was plain to the extreme in its rectangular austerity, yet when the skyscraper idea was introduced into New York architectural decoration and adornment were deemed desirable and accordingly added, so that to-day the tall building is as much entitled to esthetic consideration as any other form of structural design. But utility has been the governing consideration, and particularly in New York peculiar conditions have led to the construction of skyscrapers in such quantities that within less than two decades the appearance of the lower part of the city has been entirely transformed. But it must be remembered that these structures have been built under building regulations or codes where no limits of height have been provided, save in the case of tenements, and it must be borne in mind also that the impending adoption of a new or revised building code has been an important incentive toward the filing of plans

for such a colossal structure as the proposed new Equitable Life Building. Naturally, in building a high office building in such a city as New York, commercial considerations demand that it should be erected at a center where people congregate, and where, consequently, land values are extraordinarily high, and that it should return the maximum revenue by housing as many people as possible.

In other words, given a certain ground area, the problem is to erect a building to afford so many square feet of renting space, and to obtain this the building naturally must contain a certain number of stories and rise to the corresponding height. To the demands of real-estate owners architects and engineers have responded, so that to-day it seems almost vain to look for any limits either on the height or size of buildings if their future usefulness and earning capacity can be demonstrated, assuming of course that municipal regulations will impose no further restrictions than at present. Indeed, the engineer of the Singer Building, Mr. O. F. Semsch, in connection with the editor of the *Scientific American,* computed the height to which it would be possible to erect an office tower building under the present regulations, and it was found that a 150-storied structure rising to a height of 2000 feet was feasible according to the building regulations now in force in New York City, and with due consideration of modern engineering practice and theory. Such a structure is shown in the illustration. To-day the demand for offices in New York City seems to be fairly well met, and in the best situated and appointed of the modern high office buildings the floor rentals are figured at from $2.50 to $4 per square foot, with a maximum of about $5.

Though it is realized that the unrestricted erection of skyscrapers in a great city cannot go on indefinitely, yet no scheme for the satisfactory regulation of such buildings so far proposed has met with universal approval. By going to greater heights the lower and ground floors, for which artificial illumination for the entire day must be provided in most cases, are made less desirable and useful, yet at the same time in many cities it is believed that the time has passed for a restriction based solely on height. In fact, it has been proposed by Mr. Ernest Flagg, the architect of the Singer Building, that so long as an entire plot is not covered there should be no limit to the height of a tower on a certain specified part, and that this right, where the owner did not desire to avail himself of the privilege of erecting such a tower on his own property, might be transferred to the owners of adjoining lots, so that on each block there might be one or more towers rising to an extreme height, but restricted in their ground area. So many factors, both economic and practical, as well as esthetic, however, enter into the problem, that there seems but little hope of an early and satisfactory solution.

THE EVOLUTION OF A TYPE.

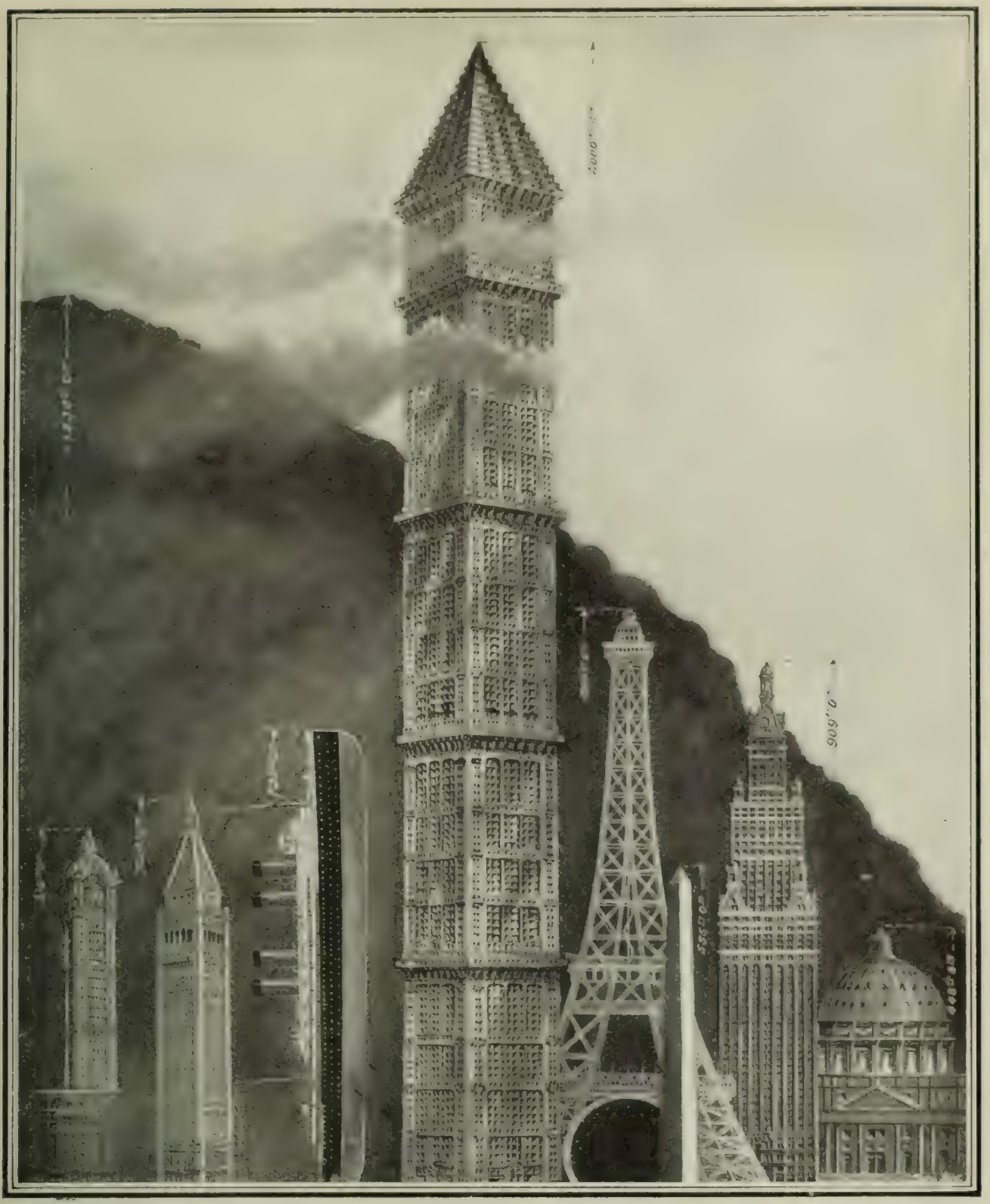
The skyscraper or tower building, in addition to extreme utility, possesses a beauty of its own that can be judged by the same canons that are applied to the older forms of construction. Furthermore, it may be seen that a distinct type has been evolved, and to this recent structures conform with substantial unanimity. An analysis of this type would reveal a massive basement, often of several stories and with an elaborate entrance showing considerable carving, above which successive stories rise in unbroken lines of windows and plain surfaces. On the top stories the decoration is concentrated and at the attic or the lantern of the tower is centered the upper adornment of the structure which is largely responsible for the individual character of the building.

AN ENGINEERING PROBLEM.

Whatever may be the general design of a modern high office building, its realization is essentially an engineering problem, for, as is well known, the modern skyscraper is a steel cage or skeleton structure fashioned of columns, beams, girders, and trusses of steel in a manner precisely similar to a cantilever bridge. Resting on a firm foundation, which now with extreme heights must go down to bedrock, the structure must carry not only floors and partitions but the exterior walls of brick, terra cotta, or stone. Furthermore, to the structural framework must be added wind-bracing, so that the entire surface exposed to the wind shall be able to withstand pressures far in excess of any it is likely to experience. The standard safety pressure for computing the wind-bracing is taken at thirty pounds to the square foot, which is in excess of that of a violent hurricane at sea or a gale of over seventy miles an hour.

IMPORTANCE OF THE FOUNDATION.

It will be obvious therefore that the foundation is the first and all important consid-



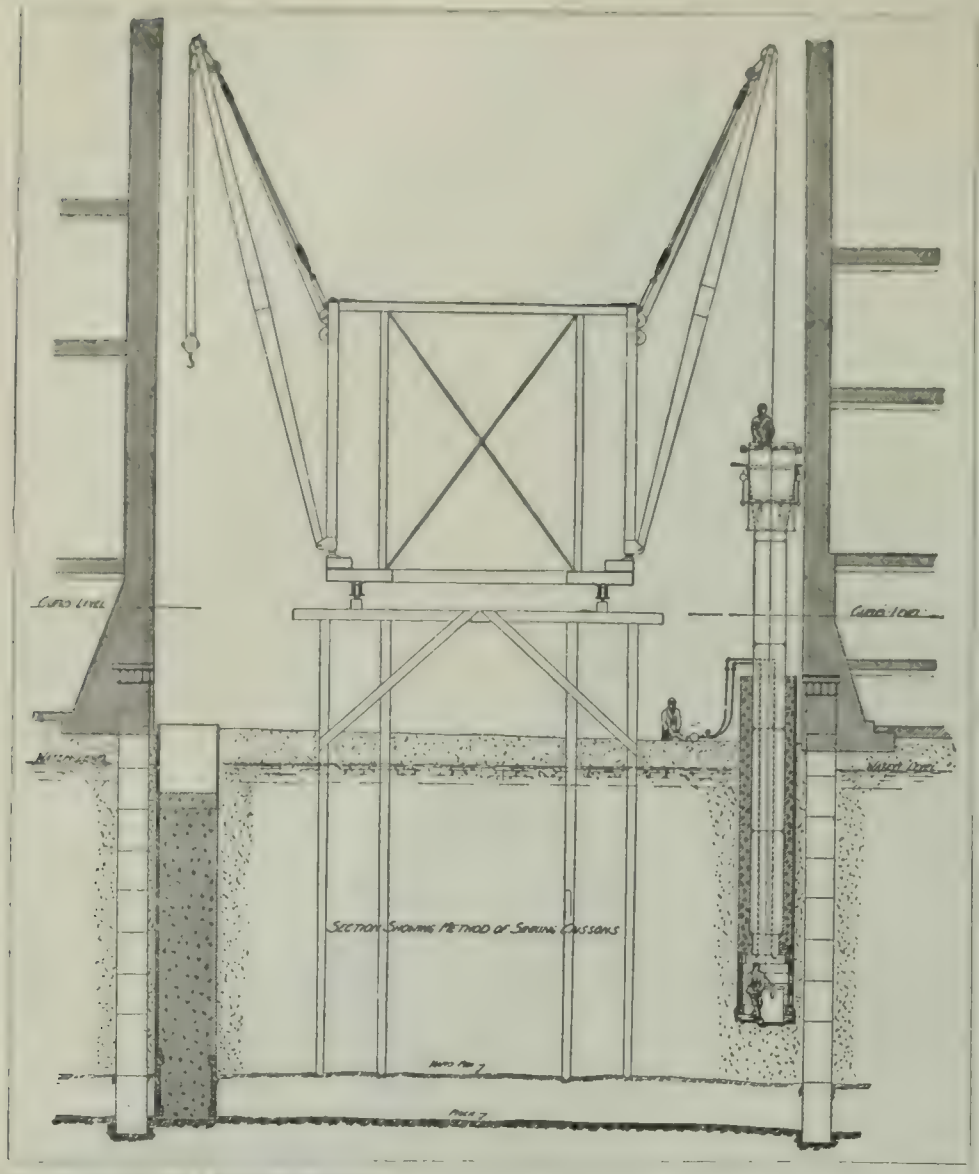
From the Scientific American.

Singer Building. Metropolitan Building. *Lusitania.* 2000-foot Building. Eiffel Tower. Proposed Equitable Washington Monument. Building. St. Peter's, Rome.

A 2000-FOOT BUILDING.—THE MAXIMUM POSSIBLE HEIGHT UNDER EXISTING CONDITIONS.

(The Building Code of New York City allows a maximum foundation pressure of fifteen tons per square foot. Without exceeding this, it would be possible to erect on a lot 200 feet square the huge building shown above. It is 2000 feet high; weighs 516,500 tons; would cost $60,000,000. The wind pressure would be 6000 tons. It would take eight times this pressure to overturn the structure.)

eration, and as a necessary consequence of the increased height and weight of high office buildings there have resulted deeper and more massive foundations. In New York, on lower Broadway, solid bedrock lies between sixty and ninety-three feet below the level of the



From the Architects' & Builders' Magazine.

SINKING A PNEUMATIC CAISSON.

(This diagram shows the method of constructing the concrete foundation for each vertical column. The caisson on the left has been filled with concrete and the pier rests on bedrock, while the one on the right is being sunk and the material at the bottom is being removed.)

curb, and to this must be sunk the foundations of the modern skyscraper office building. This bedrock is overlaid by from five to eighteen feet of hard pan, which would support a foundation carrying from six to ten tons to the square foot, while above and extending to the surface is material designated as quicksand by the engineers, which is not available where the load is much in excess of three tons to the square foot. Now the bedrock will carry in safety a load from fifty to two hundred tons per square foot, but to reach it through the quicksand for a distance of fifty feet or more below the ground water line or seventy feet below the curb, and through twenty or more feet of hard pan to the underlying gneiss, as was the case in constructing the foundations for the City Investing Building, means that a pneumatic caisson must be used for each individual foundation just as if it were the subaqueous foundation of a bridge. In such a caisson, which is sunk clear to bedrock, a concrete pier or column is formed, and usually there must be a separate foundation for every column or pair of columns, which, resting on ribbed bases of cast iron, rise vertically the entire height of the building. In the case of the foundations for the City Investing Building, already mentioned, the foundation caissons covered approximately 45 per cent. of the plot and were but a few feet apart.

ERECTION AND FIREPROOFING.

The actual erection of the steel skeleton and the connection of the various parts present no extraordinary difficulties, but it does supply further evidence of the care and complete organization with which every step in the construction of a skyscraper is attended. Naturally on the premises there is little or no storage space, and the use of the streets being prohibited, the material must be brought to the building as required and set almost immediately in its permanent place, the column lengths, braces, and floor beams being hoisted into position and rapidly riveted by pneumatic hammers and oil-heated furnaces. The concrete or terra-cotta for floors soon follows, and then the fireproofing for columns and beams, so that no part of the metal structure is exposed. For here is the crucial point of the high building. It must be absolutely fireproof, and all parts of the struc-

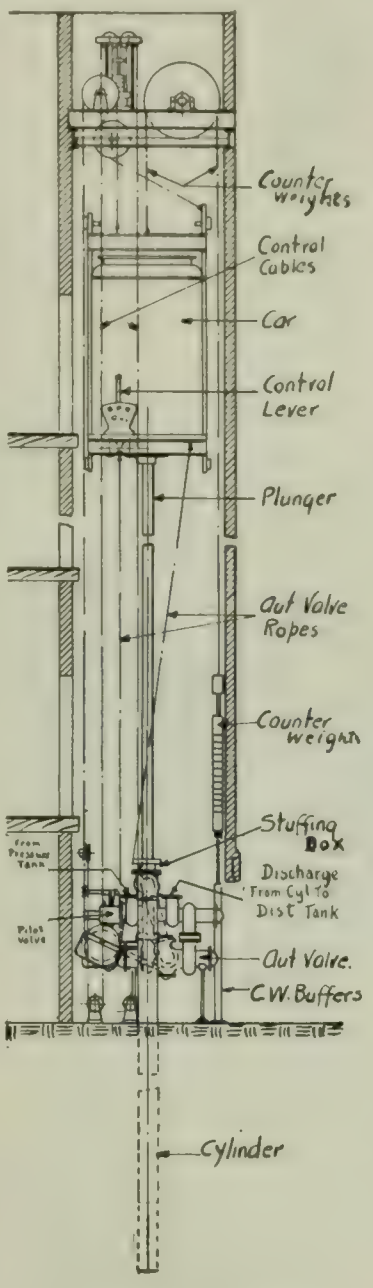
ture must be so covered with tile or concrete or plaster that the heat cannot reach the steel and cause it to expand. And this is the more emphasized when it is realized to-day that every building over ten stories in height must supply its own fire protection, as it is beyond the reach of fire engines, and even the new high pressure must be administered through the standpipes and hose of the building.

After floors and fireproofing come the exterior walls and the ornamental cornices, cupolas, lanterns, etc., which, while adding to the total weight of the building, involve no particular difficulties of construction, though of course affording ample opportunity for decoration and ornament. The New York building code provides that the walls of a steel skeleton building shall be twelve inches in thickness for the upper seventy-five feet of the building height, and below that point shall increase four inches in thickness for each succeeding sixty feet.

The vertical columns in the interior of the building, to which we have referred, possess two very important functions in that certain of them must surround the elevator shafts and to them must be connected the guide rails along which the elevators operate, while in proximity to other columns, but in the best practice in a separate compartment or pipe shaft of terra-cotta or tile, are the electrical conductors for light, heat and power, steam, water, compressed air and vacuum pipes, and the cables carrying telephones, telegraph and time service wires, various outlets, connections and switchboards being provided at each floor.

THE HIGH SPEED ELEVATOR ESSENTIAL TO THE SKYSCRAPER.

In the last analysis it has been only the high-speed elevator that has made a practical possibility of the tower building, and successive efforts have culminated in elevators which travel the 546 feet of the Singer Building tower and to the forty-fourth story in the tower of the Metropolitan Life Building. Such a journey in the elevators used but a few years ago would have required from ten to fifteen minutes, which of course would have rendered the upper floors of such a tower unavailable for rental, but to-day even when the speed of an elevator is limited by the building regulations to 600 feet per minute, it is possible to secure safe and speedy service. Indeed, many engineers think that this restriction is a most wholesome as well as liberal provision, and it is so found in actual practice, for it is not the time spent by the car in travel that counts, but that required for the ingress and egress of passengers, amounting often to 75 per cent. of the time required for a trip. Therefore small cars running with moderate velocity are usually more advantageous than large cars of greater speed, while as a result of experience it is stated that one elevator is needed for every 25,000 feet of rental floor space. Now for the requirements of the very high building two types of elevator have been evolved, both of which in actual use have been found satisfactory. These are the plunger elevator, in which hydraulic pressure acts directly on a long plunger working in a cylinder and carrying the car at its extremity, and the cable-drive elevator, which is based on the direct traction principle and is operated by an electric motor.



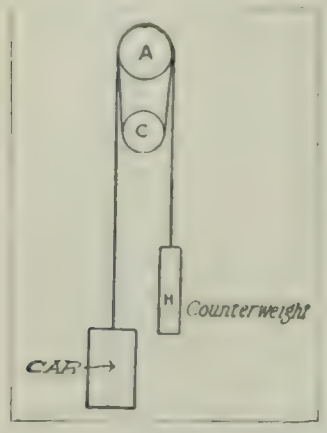
STANDARD PLUNGER ELEVATOR.

(The plunger elevator is operated by means of water under pressure being admitted to the cylinder, this power being applied directly on the plunger through the medium of pilot and main valves controlled by lever from the car. The descent is by gravity, the main valve being opened and allowing the water displaced by the plunger in its descent to escape to discharge tanks. Counterweights and cables are used only to compensate for the variable buoyancy of the plunger.)

THE PLUNGER ELEVATOR.

The plunger elevator is an interesting application of a

principle that until comparatively recent years had been used for very short lifts only, and it requires a deep well drilled into the ground for the cylinder in which the plunger operates. The most extensive installation of plunger elevators is to be found in the City Investing Building, where twenty-one have been provided, seven of which, operating as express to the seventeenth floor and local to the twenty-sixth, have a travel of 368 feet, which is a record distance for plunger elevators. To sink the wells for the elevator cylinders over one mile of drilling was required, while the total length of car and counterweight guide rails exceeds four and one-half miles.

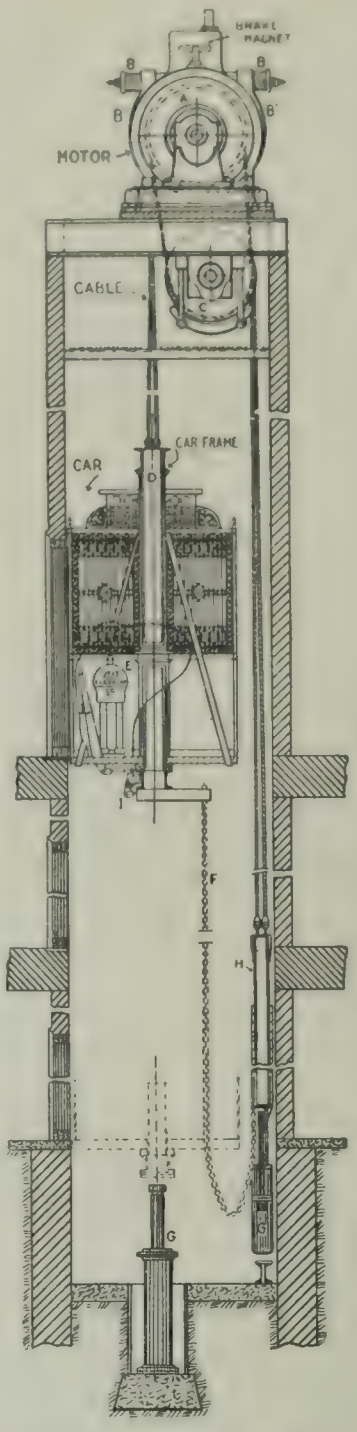


PRINCIPLE OF TRACTION ELEVATOR.

It is interesting for the non-technical individual to learn that the elevator engineer figures the work done by the cars of an elevator installation on a mileage basis, which in the case of the City Investing Building amounts to 180,000 miles per annum. Furthermore, this involves a pumping plant that would suffice for a city of 200,000 inhabitants, as when the cars are operating on the designed schedule there is an annual delivery of 900,000,000 gallons of water.

THE ELECTRIC TRACTION ELEVATOR.

With the electric direct connected traction elevator even greater heights are possible, and such machines are found installed in the towers of the Singer and the Metropolitan Life buildings, as well as in the new Terminal Building. In this type of elevator an electric motor usually is placed directly over the elevator shaft above the car, and the cables supporting the latter pass up and over a sheave or pulley, A, mounted on the same shaft as the armature or revolving part of the motor. After passing around a second sheave or idler, C, the cable again is wound around the main sheave and is connected with a counterweight, H, equal of course to the weight of the car and its average load. Now at a normal armature speed of sixty revolutions per minute the circumferential velocity of the sheave, which naturally is the same as that of the cable, is sufficient to insure the desired velocity of 600 feet per minute, while the regulation of the motor by switches and resistances is readily accomplished. Various safety devices are installed, but as a last resort there are oil cushions or buffers for both car and counterweight, which are designed to bring the car to a safe stop from full speed at either the top or bottom of the shaft. Such an elevator in the Singer Building rises in the tower to a height of 546 feet, while in the Metropolitan Life Insurance Building five such shafts will rise to the forty-first story and one to the forty-fourth. In the Hudson and Manhattan Terminal buildings there are thirty-nine of these elevators, with a maximum travel of 285 feet for those rising to the twenty-second story.



OTIS TRACTION ELEVATOR.

(A, driving sheave on motor; B, springs for actuating brake shoes; B', shoes released by magnet overcoming or compressing springs; C, idler; D, girdle carrying car; E, control switch; F, compensating chain carried by car to equalize the weight of the cable as car varies position; G, oil buffers at bottom of shaft and on counterweight; H, counterweight; I, safety device; L, emergency lever.)

For power, light, and heating it is plain that these new office buildings must require large and elaborate steam, pumping, and electric plants located in their basements, and the special mechanical engi-

neering of such a building presents many special problems on account of limited space both for machinery and for coal storage. In the Terminal buildings not only has there been installed a complete power plant, but arrangements have been made to use current from the power-house at Jersey City, a special transformer room having been designed for the sub-basement where the alternating current passing through the tunnel will be transformed into direct for the service of the building.

INTERIOR DECORATION.

Just as in the case of the exterior of the new office buildings, the public passageways and halls of the lower stories afford considerable opportunity for interior decoration, often rising to a height of two or three stories and being adorned with marble, carving and bronze, so that their appearance is most attractive. And these halls have a double function, as, in addition to giving access to the elevators, they often serve as public passages leading from street to street, or preferably supplying the approach to elevated or underground railways. Now for a person to be able to step from tube, subway, or elevated platform directly into an elevator naturally makes offices in such a building most convenient and desirable, while the large number of people passing through the ground-floor halls or arcades, in addition to the regular occupants of the building, makes small booths or offices most available for retail business. Indeed, so many people are collected in such a structure that such conveniences as special telegraph offices, restaurants, newsstands, book and stationery shops, cigar stands, and shoe-polishing establishments are most essential, not to mention haberdashers, tailors, real-estate agents, confectioners, and the hundred and one other occupations that can flourish where a number of people are gathered together. But withal the character of the building must be preserved, and the ease with which the office of a firm can be found, especially if identified with the name of a building that is on every one's tongue, makes a recently erected skyscraper a most desirable building in which to have an office, while the various improvements making for comfort and convenience are all appreciated at a time when business must follow the line of least resistance.

In the skyscraper we have simply turned our stream of travel from its normal horizontal to a vertical direction, and we have substituted private streets and modes of conveyance for those of the city below.



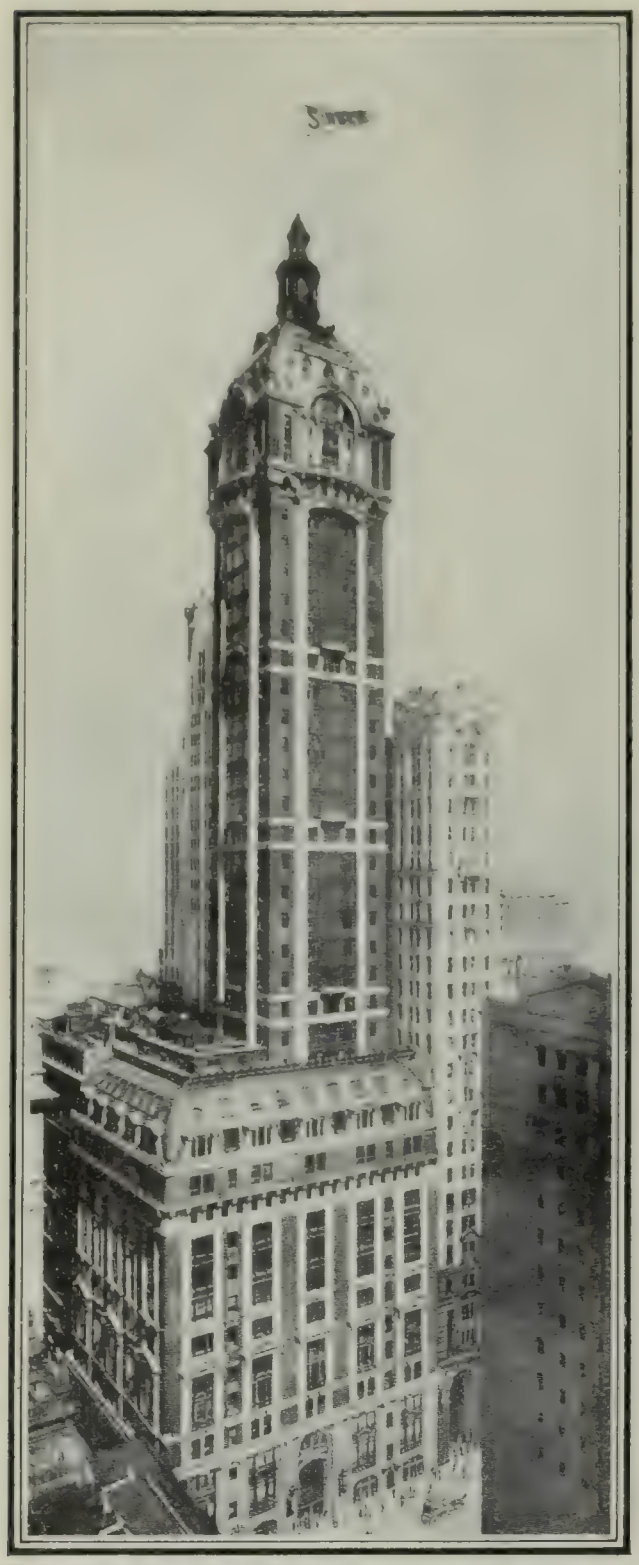
Copyright, 1908, by Pach Bros., N. Y.

THE TOWER BUILDING OF THE METROPOLITAN INSURANCE COMPANY, MADISON SQUARE, NEW YORK.

(Our photograph shows the tower approaching completion. It has fifty stories, and its flagstaff is 700 feet above the sidewalk. This great campanile to-day is only exceeded in height by the Eiffel Tower in Paris.)

METROPOLITAN LIFE TOWER A LANDMARK.

Most notable perhaps is the tower of the Metropolitan Life Building, designed by N. Le Brun & Son, which with its glistening white marble already has become a landmark for the city. As the insurance company desired more space, and as it owned the single corner not occupied by its main building, it was but natural that this vacant space should be utilized in such a way as to add to the dignity of its massive and imposing Italian Renaissance structure. Now no more fitting climax for such a group of buildings could be imagined than this noble



Photograph by Brown Bros., N. Y.

THE SINGER TOWER AND CITY INVESTING BUILDING, ON BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

Compare this photograph with the sky-line picture at the beginning of this article, where these two buildings appear in the centre as seen from the North River.)

campanile rising with its forty-six stories 700 feet above the sidewalk. For a great insurance company to have a home of such a monumental character is no small asset, and the value of such a structure outside of land, mortar, and stone cannot be underestimated. Indeed, with its great clock 324 feet above the sidewalk, where hands twelve feet in length point to four-foot numerals on dials twenty-five feet in diameter, and with its four tower bells still higher up and announcing the quarter-hours from a point twice as high as any other chimes in the world, the Metropolitan Life Building long must stand as one of the world's wonders. Here, as in other office buildings, the floor space can be computed in acres, and the entire building, with its grand total of 16,237,034 cubic feet, has a floor area of 1,085,663 square feet, or about twenty-five acres, available for the business of the company or for rental.

THE SINGER TOWER.

Sharing the honors for a high tower building with the white Italian campanile of the Metropolitan Life is the Singer Tower, designed by Ernest Flagg, which, however, suffers in any comparison with the former on account of the lofty buildings with which it is surrounded and the absence of the park at its foot. Here we have a forty-seven-story tower as the predominant feature of the remodeling and amplification of the old Singer Building at Broadway and Liberty Street. This unique structure, sixty-five feet square, sets back fifteen feet from Broadway and in its height of 612 feet carries forty-two office floors, each with sixteen offices. In the Singer Building the walls are of brick and limestone, while copper sheathing is used conspicuously, especially in the tower, where considerable decoration has been employed. The architecture is modern French, and naturally involves greater adornment than in the Metropolitan Tower, yet there is no lack of stability in the general appearance, and the extreme height of the tower is marked by grace and strength. Together with the main building, which is fourteen stories in height and has forty offices on each floor, the Singer Tower supplies about nine and one-half acres of floor space for rental.

AN OFFICE BUILDING ON A GREAT TERMINAL.

Passing from tower buildings to those of somewhat different type, the Terminal Buildings of the Hudson and Manhattan Railroad Company, of which Clinton & Russell are the architects, not only rise to a considerable elevation, twenty-two stories, or 275 feet, above the curb, but they are remarkable as constituting the largest and heaviest structure for an office building in Manhattan.

This building really represents two distinct structures, numbers 30 and 50 Church Street, running from Cortlandt to Fulton Streets, though separated by Dey Street, but as they have been built by the same corporation on the same foundation, and as they contain the terminal of the Hudson River tube and form one structure below the street, they are usually spoken of together. Over twenty acres of floor space are available for rental, and the two buildings could be divided into some 4000 offices, with accommodations for 10,000 people, or a population equivalent to that of Sioux Falls, S. D.

This enormous building has been constructed on an immense box of concrete, 420 feet in length and 178 feet in breadth at its widest point, with walls eight feet thick going down to solid rock, an average depth of seventy-five feet below the surface. Now this gigantic box of concrete is pierced so that the trains from the tunnel under the Hudson River can enter through Cortlandt Street and pass out through Fulton Street, the tracks being about thirty feet below street level, while the building proper supplies the necessary approaches to the platforms, ticket offices, waiting-rooms, etc. The terminal arrangements in no way interfere with the use of the portion above the sidewalk as an office building. Indeed, each building above the third story has a floor plan of H-form, so



THE WEST STREET BUILDING.

(Considered one of the most successful designs for a large office building, as it combines with utility great architectural beauty.)



THE GREAT TERMINAL BUILDINGS.

(These buildings house daily a population greater than that of many a small city. Beneath is the downtown terminal of the Hudson River tubes.)

that abundant light and air are secured for the various offices, there being some 5000 windows in the two buildings. While the Terminal buildings have not the ornate exteriors of some of the recent high office buildings, yet they are massive and imposing and carry out effectively their general object.

THE CITY INVESTING BUILDING.

Another interesting example of a skyscraper is the City Investing Building, F. H. Kimball, architect, with its entrance on Broadway, near Cortlandt Street, and extending through to Church Street, with a frontage on Cortlandt Street. Here we have an office building designed to afford a maximum of rental space and without the necessity of striking architectural features or the consideration of unique conditions. The result has been a rich and artistic building which rises from the Broadway sidewalk to a height

of thirty-two stories, or counting from the basement to the tower over 500 feet. The architectural base for the first five stories is faced with limestone, while above white glazed brick and white terra cotta have been used, and emphasize the opinion of many architects that a single solid color brings out most effectively the mass and form of a skyscraper.

The upper stories and the attic of the City Investing Building show considerable decoration, while within the building the arcade on the ground floor extending from Broadway to Church Street is as prominent a feature of its general plan as it is from a decorative point of view. Here have been concentrated a wealth of artistic adornment, marble, bronze, ornamental plaster, and carved stone being among the materials used. The City Investing Building has a floor space available for renting of nearly eleven acres, and its total cost was about $10,000,000.

The present space does not permit consideration of such important structures as the new West Street Building of Cass Gilbert, the new home of the Trust Company of America, or others almost equally important, but it is desirable to refer briefly to several important projects that seem to indicate that the last word in skyscraper construction has not yet been said.

A STILL LOFTIER BUILDING PROPOSED.

First of these is the proposed office building for the Equitable Life Assurance Society to be erected on the present building of the company on the block bounded by Broadway, Nassau, Pine, and Cedar streets. The plans prepared by D. H. Burnham & Co. call for a structure of sixty-two stories, 909 feet in height, exclusive of a 150-foot flag-pole, and being 209 feet higher than the Metropolitan Life tower and 292 feet higher than the Singer Building, as indicated in the illustration on page 579. Whether the building ever will be erected may be considered at this moment an open question, but the acceptance of the plans by the building department is of course a great advantage, whether the insurance company decides to erect such a building itself or should wish to dispose of the land with such permission for its construction.

The plans show a building of Renaissance type built in three sections surmounted by a cupola. The first or main building is 489 feet, or thirty-four stories high, or twice the height of the main building of either the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company or the Singer Building, and will be finished with cupolas several stories in height set around the base of the tower or second section. This will extend from the thirty-fourth to the forty-ninth story in the center of the building, being, of course, of smaller plan, and in turn will be surmounted by a still smaller section reaching to the fifty-eighth story, above which for four stories more will rise the main cupola. The main façades will be of brick and granite with terra-cotta trimmings, while the design shows bays set between pilasters of Corinthian and Doric orders, with clustered columns at the corners.

OTHER HIGH BUILDINGS PLANNED.

Less monumental than the proposed Equitable Building is the thirty-eight story building, designed by W. C. Hazlett, to be erected on lower Broadway, to supplant the old Tower Building, to which reference was made at the beginning of this article, as well as to occupy adjoining lots, while a new and lofty structure to take the place of the Mills Building, with a tower 1000 feet in height, has been proposed.

THE SKYSCRAPER AN AMERICAN TYPE.

Whether the American city has been justified in permitting the skyscraper to flourish, or whether the American investor in the end will find the lofty tower and the huge office building a useful and profitable investment, time only can tell, but that the American architect and engineer have been able to meet the opportunity which has given rise to these structures admits of no discussion. Not only has a type of building based on pure utility and special conditions been evolved, but an artistic design and treatment has resulted that to-day justly earns the admiration of European critics. And in actual construction no less than in design have American ingenuity and engineering skill been manifest. Structural materials,—especially steel, terra cotta, and concrete,—have been improved, and their use has been developed along scientific lines, so that the construction of a modern skeleton building with due regard to all elements of safety can be carried on with a skill and certainty not excelled in any form of structural engineering. And with the experience of large fires and an earthquake to test his work, the engineer of the modern skyscraper surely can say that he, like his building, stands on a firm and safe foundation.

THE GOVERNMENT'S INSPECTION OF MEATS.

BY GUY ELLIOTT MITCHELL.

THE people of the United States consume over 15,000,000,000 pounds of meat annually, a per capita consumption of nearly 200 pounds a year. This is considerably more meat for each man, woman, and child than the weight of the average full-grown man. The meat-consuming units of the American family eat every year more than double their weight of edible flesh and over three times their own weight of what may be termed meat on the hoof. It is calculated by the Bureau of Animal Industry at Washington that meat constitutes fully one-third of the nation's food bill, a proportion which makes the average European workingman scratch his head in amazement that there should be such a vast meat supply, and wonder if perhaps we are not cannibals. The majority of fairly prosperous foreigners never see meat on their tables oftener than once a week. Think of it! Only fifty-two good meals of meat in a year! Where would the "Beef Trust" be with such a market in America?



BEEF IN CHILLING-ROOM, INSPECTED AND PASSED.

The condition being as it is in the United States, and the fact being that the average family eats meat more than once a day, the wisdom of an adequate meat-inspection law, strictly enforced, is more than apparent. Our system of meat inspection is the result of a series of laws, the latest enactment, which relates principally to canned and preserved meats, being the outcome of the tremendous popular uprising of 1906. This question now presents itself: "Is the present law adequate and effective, and, now that the flurry of popular indignation on the subject has subsided, is it well administered?" To this query the answer can be made that the Government meat inspection of to-day is satisfactory to the consumer, however closely he may inspect its operation. Despite, too, the direful prophesies to the contrary, it has proved to be an absolute advantage to the packers and manufacturers, for it has given their products a standing which they never before enjoyed. The law is comprehensive, it is working well, and it is being strictly enforced. It protects the people against disease.

PROTECTION AGAINST DISEASE.

To the public the importance of meat inspection lies in the fact that all the meat animals are subject to very many diseases which impair or totally destroy the wholesomeness of their meat as food, often making it actual poison, so that the piece of meat eaten, apparently wholesome, may carry the germs of a fatal malady. Therefore both *ante-mortem* and *post-mortem* inspection to detect these diseases are of the greatest importance to the health of the nation. Dr. Melvin, the chief of the Bureau of Animal Industry, says: "To protect the people at a point where they are unable to protect themselves is, generally speaking, the object of the meat-inspection service. Diseased meat is the direct cause of disease in those who eat it. The consumer being himself unable to determine whether or not the meat he buys is diseased, demands that he be protected by the Government from the cupidity or ignorance, or both, of those from whom he buys."

INSPECTION OF LIVE ANIMALS.

Since before the time of Moses the necessity of an official meat inspection has been recognized. It is not important, however, to follow historically this governmental function from such an early date. That which will most interest persons who have the meat to eat will be to briefly trace the course of the animals from the time of their first inspection, when alive, down to the last step, when their carcasses are ready for shipment or for consumption. The law does not require the examination of the animal alive, but places this act within the discretion of the Secretary of Agriculture. It is, however, rigidly performed. The Government inspector visits the pens and examines each animal. When he finds one that is not to his mind perfectly sound and healthy he attaches to it a numbered metal tag marked "U. S. Suspect." Such animals are separated from the apparently healthy ones, and in the *post-mortem* examination their carcasses receive specially careful attention. If the *post-mortem* examination does not confirm the suspicions aroused by the appearance of the live animal, the carcass is sent along as edible meat; otherwise it is sent to the condemned-meat tank, to be converted into fertilizer, etc.

THE POST-MORTEM EXAMINATION OF MEATS.

Having run the gantlet of the *ante mortem* inspection,—the examination of the living animals,—those which have appeared to the inspector sound and healthy are conveyed through runways into the slaughter-houses, Here, in the larger establishments, the work of butchering proceeds with wonderful system and rapidity. From the time the steer is knocked in the head to the time when he has been completely cut up and disposed of, at least sixteen different butchers have been at work upon him, and each step is watched by lynx-eyed officers of the Government. Where blood is to be used for food purposes it is caught in a numbered receptacle and held until the carcass is further examined. The fat removed from the abdomen is placed in a numbered box for identification. At the first exposure of the glands when the head is severed an inspector makes an examination for tubercular infection. Another inspector stands at the elbow of the gutter and as the viscera are revealed watches with practiced eye for abnormalities, carefully examining and handling various parts to discover any obscure indication of disease. When he finds a diseased carcass he attaches a tag, "U. S. Retained," with a number. Then the carcass, with all the parts that have been sepa-



INSPECTION OF SHEEP JUST BEFORE KILLING, BY OFFICIAL INSPECTOR, BUREAU OF ANIMAL INDUSTRY.

rated, none of which has been allowed to lose its identity, is sent directly to the "retaining-room."

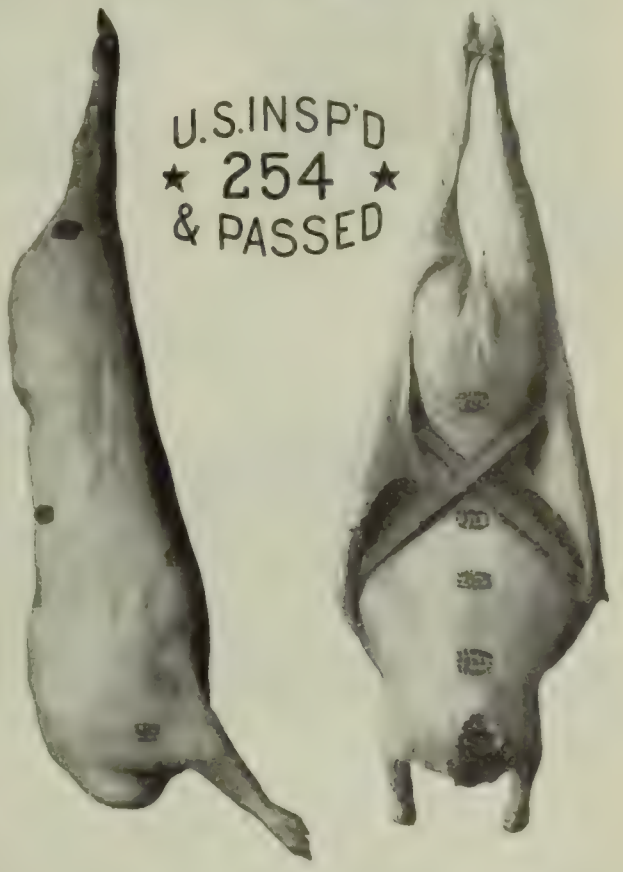
TREATMENT OF MEAT CARCASSES.

Carcasses with which the inspector has found nothing wrong are hurried along their way, washed in boiling water, scrubbed, and wiped dry with clean towels, and just before entering the chill-room are stamped with indelible ink on various parts, "U. S. Inspected and Passed," with the carcass number. The same number follows the carcass from the time it enters the house and is also registered in the Department of Agriculture's records, serving as a sure method of tracing meat about which any subsequent question may arise. No meat not so marked can be shipped from one State to another.

Calves, sheep, and goats are handled in about the same manner as are cattle, but the slaughter and inspection of hogs are quite different. Following the "sticking" of the animal, the carcass is dropped into a great vat of scalding water, where it is poled from one end to the other, and is then automatically scraped of its hair. The carcass drops on a moving platform, and a butcher almost severs its head, exposing the cervical glands, where over 90 per cent. of the causes of tuberculosis are detected. Beside this butcher stands a Government inspector, who examines the glands, feels them, or cuts them with his own knife. If he finds disease, at the first switch in the hog railroad the carcass leaves its fellows, is shunted to another rail, tagged "U. S. Retained," and sent to the retaining-room. The inspector thrusts his knife into a pail of disinfectant solution and passes upon the next hog. The carcasses whose heads show no disease pass on and are disemboweled, the carcass and the viscera being carefully scrutinized by another skilled inspector. The next step is splitting the carcasses, more inspectors examining the freshly cut halves and sometimes finding lesions in bones or muscles, in which case they are marked for the retaining-room. For the healthy carcasses the procedure is now the same as for other animals; they go through the shower bath, are labeled, and go to the cooling-rooms, while inspectors make a closer examination, in the retaining-room, of those carcasses which have been held as suspicious, and determine whether they should be allowed to pass unconditionally, be made into lard, or sent to the offal-tank.

DEALING WITH SUSPECTED MEAT.

The retaining-room, where the inspected meat is examined, must be rat-proof, with cement floors, well lighted, and provided



HOG AND SHEEP CARCASSES, INSPECTED, PASSED, AND STAMPED.

with a special lock, the key to which is kept by the inspector. Here the suspected and retained carcasses are critically examined. By no means all are finally condemned, because the examination of the first inspector has been necessarily hasty. It is his duty to be sure that all meat which he passes is exempt from disease. If there is any question about it he sends it to the retaining-room. If a later and more careful examination confirms his suspicions, the carcass is conspicuously stamped, and also the tag "U. S. Inspected and Condemned" is attached, when it is sent to the condemned-meat room and later to the tank. About 25 per cent. of the carcasses retained are afterward condemned.

INSPECTION "FROM PASTURE TO PACKAGE."

The present system of meat inspection is far more comprehensive than merely guaranteeing the wholesomeness of meat at the time of killing. In the vast business of curing, canning, pickling, etc., the Government holds strict supervision. The inspectors assure



INSPECTION OF THE NECK GLANDS OF HOGS FOR EVIDENCES OF TUBERCULOSIS.

(Government experience has shown that if the disease is present in the hogs it can be detected in the glands in 93 per cent. of the cases.)

themselves that the meats have not been spoiled or become unclean since the slaughter inspection. Such as have undergone changes that make them unfit for food are rejected and destroyed. Further, the inspectors see that no drugs, chemicals, or forbidden coloring matters are used. With microscope and reagents the experts of the Government bring to the aid of the inspection service the best efforts of modern bacteriological and chemical science. Then having, to use a well-known phrase, inspected the meat "from pasture to package," the Government takes a final step and insists that the package be properly and honestly labeled. It is one thing, says Dr. Melvin, to know that your package contains good meat; it is another to know that you buy what you think you buy.

A THOROUGHLY UP-TO-DATE SERVICE.

The great meat-packing establishments have been held up to the world as examples of the highest development of a specialized industry. They are the result of an evolution of years of gradual improvement. The federal meat-inspection service, in spite of its organization into a great business almost immediately following the passage of the law, to-day stands side by side with, and is as modern and up-to-date as, the finely organized business that it supervises. The bureau furnishes a sufficient number of inspectors for the work, and they will work as fast as the improved appliances of the establishment permit or its needs demand. The Government will not require the proprietor to stop his work to send for the inspector or to wait for him to retire and make an elaborate report, a procedure common in the inspection systems of foreign countries. The American meat inspection is probably the model for the world. Its employees are capable and expert veterinarians, bacteriologists, and chemists, and the regulations and organization are so stringent, and the transfer of inspectors and inspection of inspectors so frequent, that collusion or dishonesty is practically impossible. The consumer of meats which bear the stamp "U. S. Inspected and Passed" may have the very comfortable assurance that he is buying and eating products from healthy animals, prepared under clean and sanitary conditions.

THE RAILROAD AS AN ADVANCE AGENT OF PROSPERITY.

BY KATHARINE COMAN.

A EUROPEAN railway manager who was inspecting an American transcontinental railway, exclaimed: "But this is not what we call railroading! We transport the people and goods offered by our territory. You are creating the business that you exploit."

Our Western railroads have been built in advance of population and have been obliged to develop their territory industrially as an essential preliminary to profitable business. The Chicago, Burlington & Quincy is a case in point. The first railroad to strike west from Chicago and make connection between the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River, its lines have been steadily pushed across the prairies to the base of the Rocky Mountains, outstripping the westward movement of industry. Burlington and Quincy were frontier towns in 1855, as are Billings, Guernsey, and Cheyenne to-day. It has been the consistent policy of the management throughout its half-century fight for existence to make the prosperity of its subsidiary territory a matter of prime concern, sacrificing, if need be, immediate profits to ultimate business success.

INDUCING IMMIGRATION.

The first factor in industrial development, land, was provided in generous measure by the Government. Though the original Illinois company received no land grant, the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy inherited from the Hannibal & St. Joseph and the Burlington & Missouri railways, purchased and incorporated in the Burlington system, more than 3,000,000 acres of prairie soil. Northern Missouri, southern Iowa, and eastern Nebraska, the region covered by the subsidized lines, is surpassed by none in the United States for natural endowment. At the present price of $100 an acre, these lands would represent a handsome revenue; but at the time the roads were built quarter-sections of prairie were a drug in the market, even at the Government price of $1.25 per acre. The consistent policy of the management has been, not to hold its lands for advance in value, but to put them on sale as rapidly as proved feasible, and at such a price as would attract to the region bona-fide farmers who should grow crops and raise cattle and furnish a demand for goods from the East, thus creating business for the road. To this end, land commissioners were appointed and advertising agents sent throughout the old Northwest, where soils were comparatively poor or had been exhausted. In the years before the Interstate Commerce law forbade such favors, passes and special rates brought would-be purchasers by the trainload into the districts advertised. Special freight rates on "colonists'" goods, agricultural implements, and household supplies rendered the offer of cheap land in the new West doubly attractive. It was the part of wisdom not merely to get farmers onto the land, but to keep them there and to enable them to earn a living. During the early '70's, when hard times and the grasshopper reduced Nebraska to the verge of ruin, the railroad came to the rescue of the farmers. Thousands of people were passed back to their homes, carloads of supplies contributed by Eastern cities were sent out free of charge, seed for the next planting was freighted into the devastated districts and sold to the farmers on credit. The present prosperity of Nebraska is in good measure due to this timely aid.

ADVERTISING THE DRY-FARMING METHOD.

West of the hundredth meridian, where the average annual rainfal was seldom more than ten or fourteen inches, and agriculture seemed impossible, land was selling in grazing tracts at 25 cents an acre until the advent of dry-farming. Under the supervision of H. W. Campbell, the prophet of this latest agricultural gospel, three experiment farms were started,—one in Kansas, one in Nebraska, and one in Colorado,—and it was soon conclusively proved that all the crops suitable to this latitude could be grown without irrigation. In 1895 the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy inaugurated a new campaign of advertisement, printing pamphlets and folders and sending a deluge of literature into the older farming States. A very effective device was the demonstration car, fitted out

with sample yields and carrying one or more practical farmers to explain the method and its results. Converts to the new idea came in the main from Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Iowa. "People move along climatic lines," said an experienced land commissioner to me. "There is no use in going south of the Ohio River or east of Buffalo for recruits. They won't believe the evidence of their own senses." This costly educational campaign was carried on for the purpose of selling, not the railroad lands, which were practically exhausted, but the Government lands in western Nebraska, the cultivation of which would none the less bring a revenue to the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy.

PROMOTING IRRIGATION PROJECTS.

Farther west, in the arid foothills of the Rockies and along the mountain river valleys, recent irrigation projects are converting wastes of sagebrush and cactus into productive farming country. Whether reservoirs and ditches are built by co-operative associations of land-owners, by syndicates that have taken advantage of the Carey act, or by the federal Government, the enterprise is regarded by the railroad management as tributary to its own development, and therefore to be aided and promoted. The Interstate Canal, built by the Reclamation Service on the North Platte River, where it flows from Wyoming into Nebraska, and the various private projects in this neighborhood, have placed 450,000 acres of land "under water" and converted the approach to Fort Laramie, formerly the despair of the overland emigrant, into highly profitable alfalfa, sugar-beet, and potato farms. The valley of the Big Horn River, once the goal and too often the grave of the trapper and Indian trader, is being rapidly settled. Fully 600,000 acres is now under irrigation. The Cody branch of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy brings this remote region within two days of Omaha, and within three days of the Chicago markets. Above and below Billings, on the Yellowstone River, Government and private projects are being pushed to completion that will add another 100,000 acres to the irrigated area subsidiary to the Burlington transportation system. In the disposition of these lands the railroad plays no small part, advertising sales, describing crop possibilities, and organizing homeseekers' excursions to its western termini. Intelligent guides are sent with each expedition to assist purchasers to get at the facts, and prospective settlers are urged to see for themselves.

The promotion of fakes is no part of this far-sighted policy. Every irrigation scheme is examined by a trusted agent, and no lands are advertised until the water is actually in the canals and ready for distribution. Great pains is taken to fit the farmers for the new conditions of husbandry. Simple treatises on dry-farming, on irrigation, on diversification of crops, on stock-raising and dairy farming are among the publications regularly printed and distributed by the Landseekers' Information Bureau at Omaha. New industries that promise to develop the region experience the same fostering care. The beet-sugar mills at Denver, Billings, and Grand Island were aided by special rates on raw material, machinery, and product while such privileges were legal, and are still assured of cheap transportation during the summer months from the centers whence a labor supply may be drawn. At the opening of the "campaign" whole trainloads of men, women, and children are moved from eastern Kansas and Nebraska to the sugar-beet belt, at slightly more than a single fare for the round trip.

A FAIR-RATE POLICY.

In the adjustment of freight rates, that most difficult problem of railway finance, the Burlington management is governed by its established policy of basing the prosperity of the road on the prosperity of its clientéle. The nice adjustment of rates to "what the traffic will bear" is undertaken, not for the purpose of extracting the highest possible profit, but with a view to the ultimate capacity of each and every industry that contributes to the freight receipts of the system. To crush nascent prosperity by exorbitant charges would be to throttle the hen that is to lay the golden eggs of future dividends. In a statement submitted to the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce in 1885, Charles E. Perkins, president of the road from 1881 to 1901, and the determining influence in its history, voiced this policy in his assertion that "the desire of the railroad to increase the volume of business and to promote the prosperity of the country upon which it depends for its support" is a sufficient guaranty of fair dealing with its constituency.

THE MEN WHO COUNT IN THE BALKANS.

WHO'S WHO AND WHAT'S WHAT IN THE PENINSULA OF UNREST.

BY E. ALEXANDER POWELL.

(Late of the American Consular Service in Ottoman Dominions; Balkan Correspondent of the London *Evening Standard.*)

THE expected has happened. Bulgaria has at last thrown off the Turkish yoke and Ferdinand the pompous has assumed the crown and style of Czar of the Bulgars. The bauble crown that he had made a dozen years or so ago at Munich has at last become of use. Austria, seizing her opportunity, has annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina to the dual monarchy. The Sultan, shorn at this double stroke of more than 50,000 square miles of territory, turns helplessly to the ministry thrust upon him by the party of Turkish reform and asks, "What shall I do?" The Young Turks, knowing full well that the internal dissension which they have stirred up has so weakened the *morale* and efficiency of the army that its effectiveness is seriously crippled, gather about café tables and sip *masticas* and wonder if they will be able to weather the storm of national indignation which a tame submission to the despoilers will inevitably bring on. Hot-headed Servia, seeing in the fate of Bosnia a forecast of her own, is arming for resistance. Roumania, needing a longer coast line, is almost ready to throw in her lot with Bulgaria,—for a *quid pro quo*. Greece, the mischief-maker, scents trouble from afar and comes hastening up, ready to take sides with the stronger party. The Albanian tribesmen are sharpening their yataghans, and Nicholas of Montenegro has bidden his warriors keep their powder dry, or words to that effect. Macedonia,—that distressful land,—still reeks with the blood of her murdered people and the smoke of her burned villages. If war comes she knows full well that it is she who must bear the brunt of it. The Balkan bonfire is ready to be lighted.

But it is not Ferdinand with his toy crown, nor Abdul the shifty-eyed, nor any one else south of the Danube who will decide the matter of peace or war. It all rests in the hands of a half-dozen grave-faced, frock-coated gentlemen in the chancelleries of London, Petersburg, and Paris, of Berlin, Vienna, and Rome, who sit at the ends of telegraph wires and decide whether the Balkan apple is fully ripe and, if so, how it shall be divided.

The Balkan Peninsula has aptly been called the cockpit of Europe. It is there that the eternal Eastern Question has its origin; it is there that the East and the West, the Cross and the Crescent meet; and it is there, one day, when Europe is ready, that the fate of the Ottoman Empire will be decided. Of all parts of Europe none is so little known to the average traveler as the Near East. Indeed, it is no exaggeration to say that many regions of Asia and Africa are more familiar to the traveled American than the lands which lie beyond the Adriatic.

What manner of men are these little-known rulers who are continually setting all Europe by the ears, and who back up their threats by armies ten times larger than our own? What know you of these warrior-peoples who were brought up on pistols instead of nursing-bottles and who have written their histories with the yataghan instead of with the pen?

ROUMANIA'S ABLE SOVEREIGN.

Something over forty years ago a young man in traveling tweeds might have been observed quietly leaving a Danube steamer at Turnu Severin and disembarking on what was then Turkish soil. So little did his fellow-passengers regard him that their only interest was that a passenger whose ticket was for Odessa should cut his journey short at so God-forsaken a village as Turnu Severin. Three days later that young man, who was no other than Prince Charles of Hohenzollern, was proclaimed Prince of Roumania at Bucharest. To-day, Charles I., King of a free Roumania, after a reign of more than two-score years, sees what was once a Turkish vassal state standing proudly erect among the nations.

He came as a stranger to a strange coun-

try, with only his own unalterable determination, his strong sense of duty, and his Hohenzollern ancestry to back him up. His training, which had been that of an officer in a crack Prussian regiment, stood him in good stead at a critical moment of his career. King Charles has always been at heart a soldier, and the patriotic army of the first class which he has built up has proved not only his enthusiasm, but his military ability. In 1877 the Roumanian army, under his leadership, saved the Russians at Plevna and gained their country's independence; to-day, some half a million strong on a war footing, they are able and ready to play a decisive part in the history of Europe should their King and their country demand it.

Charles I. is now, at sixty-nine, one of the wisest and most highly accomplished statesmen of his time, and no one would think of questioning the absolute security of his hold upon the Roumanian throne. He is thoroughly abreast of the times and possesses a more than superficial knowledge of those various arts and sciences which he is expected as a ruler to protect and promote. By his marriage to the Princess Elizabeth of Wied, —"a marriage so non-political as to make it a political event of the first importance,"— he brought to Roumania a queen who has made herself beloved of all and who speedily became the center of all charitable works and ideas. Queen Elizabeth, who is better known under the pen name of "Carmen Sylva," has won a high place in literature, several of her poems and dramas,—which, by the way, she typewrites herself,—having been crowned by the French Academy. Like her husband, the Queen is an inveterate enemy of pomp and etiquette and, unlike most queens, dares to declare her preferences openly.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT.

The efforts of King Charles have been principally devoted to internal development. As a result of his influence the railways were taken over by the state in 1886, and since then have been increased and improved; he has created a great commercial port at Constantza on the Black Sea, whence the grain and petroleum of Roumania can flood the market; owing to his great personal knowledge of the land and people he has done much to promote forestry in the Carpathians; he has carefully encouraged agriculture, and the country is to-day one of the chief grain-producing nations of the world; an educational system has sprung into being, owing to the direct support and inspiration of the royal family; by the discovery of extensive petroleum-fields Roumania has been raised from the position of a country relying solely upon the rain and sun for its prosperity; while, thanks to the King's indefatigable efforts and unceasing watchfulness, the petroleum industry has been protected from becoming the monopoly either of the ruthless Standard Oil Company or of the politically directed German Bank. In civilization, culture, and intellect the Roumanians stand head and shoulders above all the other peoples of the Peninsula. Where once was chaos, corruption, and oppression, to-day is an orderly state of the same area as Alabama and the same population as Pennsylvania, which is an example to the world of peaceful internal development and a tranquil but persistent foreign policy.

SERVIA AND HER RULER.

"Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown" is a proverb that is peculiarly fitting to Peter I., King of Servia. He occupies the most uneasy throne in Europe. He knows full well, moreover, that, like his predecessor, the ill-fated Alexander,—of whose assassination many accuse him of having been an instigator,—he may well lose his crown and his life at the same time. Peter is now sixty-four years of age, but with his erect carriage and military bearing looks quite ten years younger. He has been a widower for nearly twenty years, his wife, the Princess Zorka, a daughter of Prince Nicholas of Montenegro, having died in 1890, leaving him with a daughter and two sons. The eldest of his sons, the Crown Prince George, who is just of age, is unruly, hot-tempered, ill-mannered, headstrong, and haughty; friends of the dynasty say that he is merely impetuous; enemies that he is insane, and if some of the performances he has been credited with are true, the latter conjecture must be correct.

King Peter, who receives a civil list of $240,000 a year, rules over a country which is equal in size and in population to New Hampshire and Vermont combined. Servia is naturally a very fertile land, and with good and steady government might become exceedingly prosperous. There is no pauperism in the sense in which it is understood in the West, the poorest having some sort of freehold property. There are, of course, a few poor people in Belgrade,—"the white city," as it is justly named,—but

neither their condition nor their number has necessitated such an institution as a poor-house. The Servians are an uneasy and turbulent people, with frequent changes of ministry and political upheavals. The army is well drilled and fairly efficient.

The Peter Karageorgevitch who is now king is, as his name implies, is a grandson of that Kara George (*kara* being a Turkish word, meaning black) who, in the early part of the last century, led the Servians in their revolt against the Turks, eventually making himself dictator under the title "Hospodar of the Serbs." This intrepid leader was an obscure and illiterate peasant of immense physical prowess and great natural ability, who, knowing the woods and hills of Servia intimately, accomplished marvelous deeds in guerilla warfare, repeatedly repulsing great armies sent against him by the Turks. He was assassinated in 1817, however, and of the six rulers who have succeeded him on the Servian throne one died after a reign of thirty days, two were murdered, and three were forced to abdicate.

Peter was a boy of twelve when his father was driven from the throne. An exile from Servia, he was educated in Austria, graduated from the famous French military school of St. Cyr, and became an officer in the French army under the third Napoleon. At the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian War he joined the famous Foreign Legion and served with so much gallantry that he was promoted to a captaincy on the field of battle and decorated with the cross of the Legion of Honor. A few years later, the Balkans having been set ablaze by the revolt of Bornia and Herzegovina against the Turks, Peter went to Montenegro and joined in the struggle.

His residence in Montenegro gave him an opportunity to become a suitor for the hand of the Prince's daughter, and in 1883 he married the Princess Zorka. Peter's connections with the reigning family of Montenegro have been of considerable value to him, although it is said that his former extravagance and dissipation made it difficult for his high connections to have relations with him. The twelve years intervening between the loss of his wife and his sudden accession to a blood-stained throne he spent at his quiet home in Geneva, living the life of a student in the most unobtrusive, democratic, and economical fashion. He is regarded as exceedingly liberal, not to say socialistic, in his political views, his long residence in republics like France and Switzerland making it comparatively easy for him to understand the fact that Servian sentiment is thoroughly liberal and that the day has gone by for high-handed and capricious conduct on the part of hereditary rulers in the Balkans.

PICTURESQUE PRINCE OF MONTENEGRO.

An elderly, portly, dusky gentleman in a white broadcloth frock-coat lavishly embroidered in gold, a broad and variegated waistband stuffed with weapons, a black tambourine cap, his blue trousers tucked Russian-fashion into the tops of his boots; saving the dress, a typical English squire,—such is Nicholas I., Prince of Montenegro. He is the most picturesque sovereign in Europe. He rules over a mountainous principality three-quarters the size of Connecticut, with a pastoral and agricultural population of a quarter of a million. "My country," he once said, "is a wilderness of stones; it is arid, it is poor, but I adore it! And if I were offered the whole of the Balkan Peninsula in exchange, why, I would not hear one word!" Prince Nicholas has been one of the most successful matchmakers of his time, and the late King Christian of Denmark alone did better for the princesses of his house. He is father-in-law of the King of Italy and the King of Servia, and related by marriage to half the reigning houses of Europe. When a visitor to Cetinjé once told the Prince that his country was very beautiful and interesting, but that it appeared to have no valuable exports, his Highness replied, with a twinkle in his eye, "Sir, you forget my daughters."

Prince Nicholas, even by the admission of his severest critics the ablest of the Balkan sovereigns, has hitherto solved the problem of reconciling the old order with the new, and so long as he lives Montenegro will go on in the way which he has so ably marked out for her development. The Gospodar or "Lord," as his people call him, is, indeed, one of the most remarkable men of the time. He combines two qualities usually considered incompatible,—the gift of poesy and great practical common-sense. No one can understand his character, and therefore the policy of his country, which entirely depends upon his will, without taking both of these characteristics into consideration. The Prince most emphatically knows on which side his bread is buttered, and his public acts are carefully calculated toward the improvement of his political position.

But Prince Nicholas is not wholly absorbed by questions of statecraft, finding time for small matters as well as great. On one occasion, when he was leaving the country for a considerable time, he resolved to provide employment for his warriors, who strongly object to any form of work that is not warlike, and at the same time improve the wine trade of the Black Mountain. He accordingly summoned the chief men together, and in their presence planted a vine stock with his own hands, bidding them all go home and do likewise. Finding that the art of farriery was despised by the Montenegrin braves, he caused a smithy to be erected outside the palace, and there hammered a horseshoe for his haughty subjects, who were thus convinced that what was good enough for their Gospodar was good enough for them. He is utterly indifferent to formality or etiquette, and in the midst of a court procession one day he hailed the postman, whom he spied in the distance, stopping his carriage in order to seize his letters and newspapers.

The Prince, who has himself a brilliant record as a soldier, is commander-in-chief of the Montenegrin army, which, as Scharnhorst once said of Prussia, is simply "the nation under arms." Every Montenegrin of military age receives a rifle and a supply of cartridges from the government, and every man in the principality, even in time of peace, always carries a revolver, and carries it loaded, by special command of the Prince. A Montenegrin loves his weapons as his children; infants are allowed to play with the butt-ends of pistols, and a native proverb says "You might as well take from me my brother as my rifle."

All Montenegrins are men of such unimpeachable integrity and tried ferocity that their services as consular guards and bank messengers are eagerly sought throughout the Levant. It may sound ridiculous, but a Montenegrin would die to save his master's life in case of need. He gives his word to be faithful unto death, he says "*Bes a bes,*"—which means "word of honor,"—and having said that, it is far more desirable to die than to go back upon it. On the rare occasions where a Montenegrin has betrayed the life or interests of his employer he has, upon returning to Montenegro, been killed by his own people. Only one has to treat him like a gentleman; if you strike or insult him, a Montenegrin will shoot you like a dog. All the same, I believe Montenegro is the only place left in Europe where you can get a man to die for you at $20 a month.

FERDINAND OF BULGARIA.

Twenty years ago, or thereabouts, a little group of Bulgarian statesmen were seated about a table in a Viennese beer-garden. With them was an Austrian friend. The Bulgarians composed a committee which had been sent out to scour Europe for a suitable prince to succeed the dethroned Alexander. Unsuccessful in their quest, they were returning to Sofia. The acquaintance, learning their business, indicated a young officer in the white tunic and gold-laced *képi* of the Austrian hussars, who was sitting at a nearby table. "There, gentlemen," he remarked, "is just the man you want. He is Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, a grandson of Louis Philippe of France, and a cousin of every crowned head in Europe, and he is, moreover, a man of great wealth."

The committee accepted the suggestion eagerly, conferred with the Prime Minister of Austria the next morning, communicated with Stambuloff at Sofia by telegraph, and within twenty-four hours had offered the throne of Bulgaria to the young prince, who was not yet twenty-six years of age. One-and-twenty years later, at Tirnovo, the ancient capital of Bulgaria, surrounded on every hand by ruins and relics which spoke eloquently of Bulgaria's golden age, the same prince, now a man of two-score and seven, cast aside the title of "Royal Highness" and with it the Turkish yoke, and proclaimed himself Ferdinand I., Czar of All the Bulgars. The style and title he assumed was no vainglorious one, for five centuries before there was a czar in Russia, Bulgaria had adopted that proud title for her rulers. By his act he revivified the kingdom of Bulgaria, which fell in 1393, and asserted his sovereignty not only over the people of Bulgaria, but over their 3,000,000 compatriots scattered throughout the Balkans.

Although a grandson of Louis Philippe, the prince has the nose of Louis Napoleon and bears a singular resemblance to the last Emperor of the French, both in disposition and character. His nose is a gratification to the caricaturist. It is so conspicuous that it answers as a trademark, and they are able to play upon it with great ingenuity. Ferdinand is altogether a clever and accomplished gentleman, a skilful politician, with an accommodating conscience, who has inherited the manners of his Bourbon ancestors as well

as their insincerity, and can wriggle out of a tight place more gracefully than any other prince in Europe.

Few outsiders have any idea of the unpopularity of Ferdinand in Bulgaria. The main objections to him are twofold: first, his Russo-phil policy, and, secondly, his love of show and etiquette. His one aim in all that he does is to increase his personal and social position. He long desired the title of king that he might be allowed to dispense with the odious necessity of wearing a fez when he visited his liege lord, the Sultan, at Yildiz Kiosk, although he did not hesitate when he thought there was something to be gained by kneeling and kissing Abdul-Hamid's hand. It is quite conceivable that Ferdinand, of whom his relative, the Comtesse de Paris, once said that he cared for nothing except titles and orders, has sacrificed material advantages for the empty dignity of his royal crown. Meanwhile the domestic policy of the prince has been equally unpopular. The Bulgarians prize economy above all other virtues, yet every municipality which Ferdinand has visited has been obliged to run into debt, owing to the cost of receiving him in what he considers befitting pomp, and his marriage alone cost $600,000. He never drives out unless a squadron of cavalry surrounds his carriage, and the simple peasant-farmers ask, and not without reason, why he should keep up such unnecessary state when one sees a really important sovereign like the Emperor of Austria driving through the streets with a single attendant.

The Princess Marie Louise of Parma, whom Ferdinand married in 1883, first aroused his pride and stimulated his independence. Both she and Ferdinand were inordinately ambitious to advance their position and power. Instead of being registered in the "Almanach de Gotha" as "princes," they wanted to be called king and queen, and actually had crowns made at Munich in anticipation of a favorable vote in the *Sobranjé*. Ferdinand is himself a devout Roman Catholic by birth and baptism, and had promised his wife that their eldest son should be brought up in that religion, but no sooner was his wife buried in 1899 than he placed the Crown Prince Boris, a child then five years old, in charge of a Russian priest of the Greek church, who secretly baptized and is now educating the child in that faith, to which, of course, all Bulgarians belong. Ferdinand was remarried, in February last, to the Princess Eleanor of Reuss, thus allying himself with a family even more ancient than his own.

Accident made Ferdinand a sovereign; nature intended him for a student. He is never so happy as when rambling through the mountains in search of choice botanical specimens, for he is an accomplished naturalist and has catalogued nearly all the *fauna* and *flora* of Bulgaria. He is pompous, insincere, extravagant in his personal tastes, fond of glitter and display, but inordinately ambitious and a born politician, not to say intriguer. He is wont to take his guests to his summer palace at Rilo, which lies in the mountains, not far from the Turkish frontier, and show them the "promised land" of Macedonia, over which it is his ambition to rule.

But, in spite of his weaknesses and his trivialities, Ferdinand of Bulgaria looms today as the most commanding figure in the Balkans. He has made himself the ruler of a state the size of Pennsylvania, with a population of 4,000,000 people, and can put into the field 400,000 trained and warlike fighting-men, the largest percentage according to population of any country in the world. He has made himself Czar of the Bulgars, but he sees in himself the future Emperor of the Balkans. It is no idle dream. Macedonia, with three-fourths of its population of Bulgar blood, needs no urging to come under Bulgar sway. Servia sees in the Austrian annexation of Bosnia a forecast of her own fate and, jealous though she is of Bulgaria, would doubtless prefer a Balkan confederation to Austrian annexation. King Charles of Roumania is aged and infirm, and many of his subjects believe that such an alliance would strengthen their position. Montenegro and Albania would doubtless fall into line. In such a confederation lies the sole hope of Balkan integrity. Such an empire,—for Germany, remember, is a confederation of small principalities and kingdoms,—could bid defiance not alone to Turkey, but to any European power, for it could put into the field a combined army of more than 1,000,000 men.

THE POWER BEHIND SEVERAL THRONES.

There is yet another ruler in the Near East of whom probably not one American in ten thousand has even heard. Though he is the sovereign of no one of the Balkan states, it is he who actuates the policy of them all. I refer to the Very Amiable and Dignified Orthodox Patriarch of the East, His

Holiness Joachim III. He is one of the least-known and most interesting personalities of our time. He exercises more actual power than all the Balkan rulers rolled into one. He is the highest constituted authority of the Orthodox Greek church, and stands in much the same relation to its 98,000,000 of communicants that Pius X. does to the Church of Rome, but with this one vital exception,—that his power is temporal as well as spiritual. His spiritual sway is acknowledged by the members of the Orthodox faith from Egypt to Russia; his temporal power is little short of absolute in all the Orthodox communities of the Ottoman Empire. He is received as an equal by the Sultan and as a superior by the rulers of those nations whose state religion is that of the Orthodox church.

Joachim III. is now well past the age of three-score and ten. As is the custom among the Greek clergy, he wears his beard long, and his flowing hair is gathered in a knot on the top of his head. He lives in great state at the Ecumenical Palace of Phanar, on the Golden Horn, the imposing front gates of which have never been opened since that bloody day, now close on a century ago, when a former patriarch was hanged between them by a fanatical Turkish mob. When he goes into Constantinople he is conveyed in a golden barge of forty oars, and his official audiences are ceremonies of great state.

MACEDONIA'S TWOFOLD PROBLEM.

The crux of the whole Near Eastern question is to be found in Macedonia, the name which, though it finds no place in the present administrative division of Turkey, is generally given to that portion of the empire which is bounded on the north by portions of the Servian and Bulgarian frontiers, on the east by the River Mesta, on the south by the Aegean Sea and part of the Greek frontier, and on the west by an ill-defined line coinciding with the Shar range, this territory, which is somewhat larger than the State of Indiana, including the vilayet of Salonica, the greater part of the vilayet of Monastir, and the southeastern part of the vilayet of Kossovo. The population of Macedonia may, perhaps, be estimated at 2,200,000, of whom fully two-thirds are Christians belonging to various churches and nationalities. Of these Christians by far the great majority profess the eastern Orthodox faith, owing allegiance to the Greek patriarchate or to the Bulgarian exarchate.

Inhabited by a variety of races, Macedonia possesses a peculiar importance as the principal theater of the struggle of nationalities in eastern Europe. All the races which dispute the reversion of the Turkish possessions in Europe are represented within its borders. Here are centered the rival aspirations of the various states which during the nineteenth century became detached from the Ottoman Empire. The Macedonian problem may, therefore, be described as the quintessence of the Eastern question.

The Macedonian question divides itself into two categories: religious and racial. The embittered struggle of the rival nationalities in Macedonia dates from the middle of the nineteenth century. Until that period the Greeks, owing to their superior culture and their privileged position, exercised an exclusive influence over the whole population professing the Orthodox faith. All Macedonia was either Moslem or Orthodox Christian, without distinction of nationality, the Catholic or Protestant communities being inconsiderable. The first opposition to Greek ecclesiastical ascendancy came from the Bulgarians. The Bulgarian literary revival in the earlier part of the nineteenth century was the precursor of the ecclesiastical and nationalist movement which resulted in the establishment in 1870 of a Bulgarian exarchate, the firman specifying a number of districts in Macedonia to which Bulgarian bishops might be appointed while other districts might be subjected to the exarchate should two-thirds of the inhabitants so desire.

The Porte, it must be understood, exercises no jurisdiction in the internal affairs of its Christian subjects, which are regulated in each diocese by a council of the chief inhabitants, presided over by the bishop, who also acts as intermediary between his flock and the Turkish civil authorities when they have any disagreement with Moslems. Until the creation of the Bulgarian exarchate by the firman of 1870, the Greek Patriarch of the East was the spiritual,—and to a great extent the temporal,—lord of the Balkan Peninsula, the Christians being massed together under the compendious title of Greeks. Owing to the tyranny of the Greek clergy in matters spiritual and the desire of the Bulgarians for a church service read in their own tongue, there was a split in the Greek church in 1870, the Bulgarian Christians seceding from the mother church and forming a church of their own under the leadership of

the Bulgarian exarch, the Sultan intrusting to him the secular and spiritual interests of his flock. These same prerogatives were also held by the Greek patriarch as the representative of the Greek Christians. The patriarch and the exarch delegated, in turn, part of their attributes to their inferiors—bishops and priests. In this way the clergy formed a body of functionaries invested with large administrative and judicial powers. Every religious community was intrusted with the repartition of the state taxes among the members of the community, and was responsible for their payment into the state exchequer. In a word, the spiritual head of a Christian race was at the same time its civil representative before the Turkish authorities.

It will readily be seen, therefore, how the ancient racial jealousies of the Greeks and Bulgarians were rekindled by this religious schism, and a condition of the utmost danger was brought about. In those districts where the Bulgarians predominated the appointment of the local officials, schoolmasters, and priests was in the hands of the exarch; in those portions of Macedonia where there was a majority of Greeks the patriarch had full sway. Both the Greeks and Bulgarians, therefore, have instituted church and school propagandas in Macedonia, where they have waged a furious war between themselves upon the shoulders of the poverty-stricken and demoralized native population. For nearly a decade armed bands of Greeks and Bulgarians, one as bloodthirsty and cruel as the other, have roved all over Macedonia, the Greeks endeavoring to get the Bulgarian inhabitants to declare allegiance to the patriarchate, while the Bulgarians coerced the Greek inhabitants into a false loyalty to the exarchate, both parties backing up their efforts at proselytism by committing murders and atrocities of every description.

THE PERSISTENT RACIAL CONFLICT.

The racial animosities of the Balkan nations likewise have their common cause in Macedonia. She is the apple of discord. Every Balkan state is contemplating the conquest of this rich province and the playing of principal *rôle* in the destinies of the Peninsula. Since the creation of the independent kingdoms of Greece, Roumania, Servia, Montenegro, and Bulgaria there is no longer any possibility of a simple division of Macedonia among Christians and Moslems, for in Macedonia all these races are hopelessly intermixed. To put the position briefly, each of these nationalities is pitted against the rest, and all are equally antagonistic to their common tyrants, the Turks, against whom, however, their mutual jealousies will not allow them to combine. Though living in close contact with each other, each of these Christian nationalities maintains its own separate existence, its separate internal government, churches, customs, costume, and language.

Unfortunately, all of these races have at some distant period held more or less brief sway over some part or other of Macedonia, and these historical reminiscences, which appear of purely antiquarian importance to us of the west, are considered vital in the Balkans. Historically there is little doubt, despite the efforts of Greek and Servian writers to minimize their claims, that in the days of the old Bulgarian czars (893-1277) Macedonia was almost entirely under their sway. The Servian writers, on the other hand, tell us very plainly how the great Servian Czar Dusan (1336-1356) included all Macedonia in his vast dominions, calling himself "Czar of Macedonia, and Monarch of the Serbs, Greeks, Bulgarians, the coast and the western parts." The Greeks, of course, can afford to regard Bulgars and Serbs alike as interlopers in the country where Philip and Alexander of Macedon held sway, where later the Byzantine emperors ruled, and where even in Turkish days the Greek clergy shared power with the Ottoman officials. The Roumanian and Albanian propagandas are the most recent of the Macedonian agitations, both of these nationalities taking a hand in the struggle because of the very considerable proportion of Macedonians of Wallachian (Roumanian) and Albanian blood.

And above all these five parties there rises the Austrian eagle, ready later on to pounce down upon Salonica, whenever a suitable opportunity offers. To my mind, at least, the ultimate solution of the Macedonian tangle is that Austria-Hungary should "run down to Salonica" and occupy Macedonia, as she has already occupied Bosnia and Herzegovina, to the general advantage of mankind. Salonica will then become the greatest port in the Near East, the quickest route to India will be through the valley of the Vardar, and the thorniest of thorny questions will be solved by Bismarck's old prescription, that of converting Austria into a real *Oesterreich*, or eastern empire.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

IS AN HONEST NEWSPAPER POSSIBLE?

"CAN a newspaper tell its readers the plain, unflattering truth and pay its way?" is the question discussed in the October *Atlantic Monthly* by "A New York Editor." It is gratifying to learn that, in the opinion of this writer, "there are the most hopeful indications that we have now a sufficient public thirst for truth to guarantee a market for such a newspaper." It must not be forgotten, however, that a newspaper is, after all, a business enterprise, and that, owing to the cost of production, it cannot live without its advertisers; and although there are many independent journals in the United States, "the advertisers exercise an enormous power which only the very strongest can refuse to recognize." By way of illustration, the writer of the article under notice makes the following assertion:

> Within the past three years the department stores have combined to modify the policy of at least three New York daily newspapers. One of the most extreme and professedly independent of these newspapers, always taking the noisiest and most popular line, with the utmost deference to labor unions, withdrew its attack upon the traction companies during the time of the Subway strike, on the threatened loss of its department store advertising. It has never dared to criticise such a store for dismissing employees who attempted to form a union. In other words, this paper is not independent, and in the last analysis is governed by its advertisers.

Without giving any names, "A New York Editor" presents an interesting and critical estimate of half a dozen or so of the metropolitan journals having a wide popular appeal, of which the following is a condensation:

No. 1.—Has the potentiality of being a very good morning daily. Foreign news exceptionally ample, but very badly edited. Home news fairly good. Editorial policy eminently fair, —chary of personalities, and considerate to adversaries; but the editorials, like the foreign cables, look as though they had been put in with a shovel. Fortunately, they are short.

No. 2.—By far the most interesting of the morning dailies. News handled with the single view of making it thoroughly readable. Reporting of a very high quality indeed; but a column and a half of brilliant nonsense will be given to an event with a news value of ten lines. The paper has the indispensable note of authority; but editorials are altogether too long. Manifests persistent animosity toward many public men, and cannot speak of them without a sneer.

No. 3.—An evening newspaper; in point of honesty of purpose and high ideal occupies a position of its own. Most conscientiously edited, and appeals to a limited intellectual class.

No. 4.—The one specimen left of the machine newspaper. Lives upon its once great reputation. Both home and foreign news fairly done. There is not an editorial in it from year's end to year's end which anybody would feel obliged to read. Financial page beneath contempt. It has the reprehensible practice of including in its news columns advertising matter, which would not be tolerated in an independent newspaper.

No. 5.—The last remaining specimen of uncompromising "yellow." News extremely poor, consisting of the Associate Press service warmed up into sensational forms. Noisy methods are used to such an extent that the thing becomes one continuous shriek. Editorials occasionally able and always almost utterly without scruple or principle. Appeal to class hatred, anti-British sentiment, hatred of the orderly administration of justice are all used in a way which would disgrace the most rabid Parisian political journal.

No. 6.—Morning issue, formerly of the same yellow type, but now in a very fair way to reform. News well condensed and readable. Editorial good; but attitude on Wall Street shows abounding ignorance of economics in which only the proprietor of the paper could possibly afford to indulge. The production good, and in a fair way to become better.

No. 7.—The best handled business proposition in the New York group. The one object is to sell the paper. News collected with enterprise and displayed to advantage. Shipping news unequaled. It is the respectable competitor of the yellow journal. Editorials are not worth the name. There has been a compulsory alignment to decency in the advertising department, but its advertisements of swindling stock tipsters are a disgrace to a self-respecting newspaper.

The general deduction to be made from these examples is that no paper of the New York group combines the two indispensable qualities of popularity and authority. The ideal newspaper must have real technical merit and must make itself widely heard. Any man with a message can obtain a hearing. The people want to learn, and they can be approached in mass in two ways:

One is the public meeting, and the other is the popular newspaper.

I say popular advisedly, because we live in a country where we decide all questions, however abstruse, by counting noses. . . . If we have adopted a system which regards the nose as more important than the brain behind it, the only problem is how to make the best of our materials. We have to remember that we are dealing with a voting population which . . . is about as ignorant as could well be imagined. . . .

As an admirable evidence of the public demand for the truth, our editor points to the advent of the independent voter, "who is killing the bosses," and for whose evolution the newspapers are largely responsible, though the magazines have undoubtedly helped. Less than ten years ago "party regularity" was the standard for voters, and those who persisted in doing their own thinking were called mugwumps, soreheads, and cranks.

What the public wants is an independent newspaper, one

which treats its reader not as a child nor a sage, neither as a hero nor a fool, but as a person . . . to be taught tactfully to stand upon his own feet. . . . A paper which gives the Senator and the shop-girl what they both want to read and are the better for reading.

Only millionaires can, however, start newspapers; but a journal of standing might be gradually remodeled on the lines indicated. "The market for excellence is inexhaustible; and the country is plainly beginning to see the sterling market value of common honesty."

WHAT IS AMERICA WORTH?

IN all well-regulated commercial establishments there are periodical stock-takings, and balance-sheets are duly struck. In the preparation of the latter a list of the firm's or company's assets is one of the most important items. If, for any purpose, the people of the United States should wish to make out a return of their present possessions, what would be the value of them? In a word, How much is the country worth? An answer to this question is contributed by Mr. L. G. Powers, of the Bureau of the Census, Washington, to the *American Journal of Sociology* for September. As introductory to a table of values Mr. Powers gives the following interesting and instructive explanation of the nature of the possessions of which our wealth consists. He says:

They are the lands utilized for various purposes, but not the deeds, mortgages, and other paper evidences of their ownership. They are railroads, factories, mines, stores, stocks of goods, and live-stock, but not the stocks and bonds which measure the equities of their holders in the properties mentioned. They are the products of agriculture, manufactures, mines, forests, and fisheries, held as raw material for manufacture, or as food, clothing, and ornament, or as implements and machinery, but not the warehouse receipts issued to their owners.

The statisticians of the United States Census and many others have made appraisals of the national wealth, and their statements thereof are the exhibits of assets which would be used in a balance-sheet prepared for a business house. These appraisals for the year 1904 are as follows:

FORMS OF WEALTH.	1904.
Real property and improvements taxed	$55,510,247,564
Real property and improvements exempt	6,831,244,570
Railroads and their equipment	11,244,752,000
Street railways	2,219,966,000
Telegraph systems	227,400,000
Telephone systems	585,840,000
Pullman and private cars	123,000,000
Shipping and canals	846,489,804
Privately owned water works	275,000,000
Privately owned central electric light and power stations	562,851,105
Live stock	4,073,791,736
Farm implements and machinery	844,989,863
Agricultural products	1,899,379,652
Manufacturing machinery, tools and implements	3,297,754,180
Manufactured products	7,409,291,668
Imported merchandise	495,543,685
Mining products	408,066,787
Gold and silver coin and bullion	1,998,603,303
Clothing and personal adornment	2,500,000,000
Furniture, carriages and kindred property	5,750,000,000
Total	$107,104,211,917

Similar estimates have been prepared for each census year since 1850.

In 1850 the national wealth was estimated as $7,135,780,228; in 1860, as $16,159,616,068; in 1870 (estimate made on a currency basis of the time when reduced to a gold basis), $24,054,814,806; in 1880 (on the same basis), $43,642,000,000; in 1890, $65,037,091,197; in 1900, $88,517,306,775; and in 1904, as shown in the table given above, $107,104,211,917. . . . These annual additions to our national wealth reflect three very important factors: (1) The creation of new forms of wealth as the result of human labor; (2) the appreciation in value of all property as the result of the world-wide influence of the increased and increasing supply of gold and silver which began to be felt immediately after the discovery of gold in Australia and California just prior to 1850; and (3) the appreciation of property in cities and towns due to the growth of population.

It will be seen, on referring to the table, that the most important item in the list of assets is real property. Some idea of the labor involved in obtaining the figures for this one asset may be gathered from the fact that, as Mr. Powers informs us, the Census Bureau, before making its appraisal, ascertained the ratio between the tax-list valuation and the real true value of the real property in each one of the counties and in all of the principal cities of the United States. No less than 5,700,000 farms were included in the taxable real property, the farmer being in each case his own appraiser; and all the information collected in the last fifty years shows that this return was on the whole very exact and trustworthy.

The value of railroads, street railways, telegraphs and telephone systems, Pullman and private cars, electric light and power stations, was estimated upon the basis of the selling price of bonds and stocks in the year 1904. In the case of live-stock, farm implements, manufacturing machinery, etc., the census figures were obtained directly from the owners. The manufacturing and mining products on hand were estimated at one-half those produced during a single year.

The total wealth of the nation may easily be tested by statements concerning the number and wealth of our millionaires, which appear from time to time in the magazines and newspapers.

If the statements referred to are trustworthy and the census has given a correct estimate of wealth, then the deductions usually made from such statements are correct. There is an intense concentration of wealth in the hands of a few. The millionaires own nearly as much wealth as the census shows to exist in the country. If, on the other hand, we start with the value of farms and other homes which are known to be owned by men of small possessions, the savings-bank deposits, and other known possessions of those of moderate means, and then add the lowest popular estimates of the possessions of our millionaires, we have an aggregate far in excess of the census appraisal of national wealth; and the conclusion under such circumstances is irresistible, either that the census estimates of national wealth are ridiculously small or the popular estimates of the wealth of our millionaires are greatly exaggerated.

Mr. Powers finds no evidence "that would justify either statement that our national wealth is grossly understated or that our millionaires own so large a share of that wealth as to leave the great majority without property."

THE CURSE OF AMERICAN EDUCATION.

BEARING in mind the old adage "Where there's smoke there's fire," it would seem to be the fact that there is something really and radically wrong with our American system of education. In the last issue of the REVIEW we noticed an article on "The Inefficiency of the Public Schools"; and one can seldom take up a magazine or a newspaper without finding in it some disparagement of the educational methods now in vogue. According to Mr. James P. Munroe, in the *Popular Science Monthly*, the blight on American education is specialism. From one point of view, this is tantamount to saying that education is up to date; for specialism is the order of the day.

From the professor of Greek down to the "professor" who shines one's shoes, that man is in demand who is disposed to concentrate all his energies upon the learning or the doing of one thing. Even our households have become infected, for therein is to be found the very apotheosis of specialization. Even so late as the beginning of the last quarter of the nineteenth century one maid would do substantially all the work of the house; whereas, to-day the lady who condescends to burn one's beefsteak and to parboil one's potatoes will not enter the laundry or the dining-room, while the other maid (or maids) would join the family in general starvation before so far forgetting her "place" as to cook a single meal.

But what can be expected of the rank and file of the modern world when the leaders of American life, men in the professions and in those higher institutions which prepare for the professions, have seemingly gone mad upon the question of specialization?

In Bacon's day any man, however brilliant, might "take all learning for his province," but that time is gone forever. But that does not justify the running to an opposite extreme,

the digging of a hole in the side of a small mound of erudition, getting into the farthest end of it, and maintaining that the tiny patch of sky framed by the mouth of the hole is all of the universe worth while. . . . If some man spends his whole life grubbing at some Greek root, why is he to be rewarded with titles and emoluments, and no scholastic encouragement be given to the far less erudite man who is nevertheless sending intellectual and moral roots over a wide area of human thought and life?

Mr. Munroe holds that the curse of Amer-

ican scholarship and of American education is the Ph.D. Hundreds of young fellows are starving themselves and impoverishing their parents in order to obtain this degree, which is practically essential as a key to a faculty position, "not because there is any valid educational reason for it, but because it is required in Germany and looks well in the prospectus." Having gained his degree and been placed on the teaching staff of the university, the young Ph.D., to maintain his position, has to produce something, and that quickly. He must now specialize still more, digging, like a woodpecker, into some wormhole of erudition. "This digging is politely called research, but is the sorriest counterfeit of the genuine thing."

It is these men, as a rule, who become professors and heads of departments; it is they who determine the atmosphere and the trend of the colleges; it is this type of specialist who is setting the standards of learning and scholarship for America. As a result we have our professions filled with men who can do much within the little cell of their specialty, but who are wholly ineffectual in the great world of human interests.

Only two kinds of specialists are allowable: one is the man who has such a volume of treasure to bestow that every minute of his time should be devoted to dispensing it; the other, who can concentratedly dig and who has no other ability. The number of these is, however, comparatively limited. What most educated men need is not concentration, but expansion. At the present time we specialize our high-school youth "in battles and sieges and leave them ignorant of the great development of mankind." We send out from our applied-science schools many men "who are competent to put up a bridge, but who are absolutely unable to put up a good front among their equals."

We have been so busy stuffing our children and our students with facts and classifications that we are forgetting that the main things which they as men must know are men. . . . Whether a boy is to start in a store, in an office, or as a "drummer"; whether he is to be a minister, a lawyer, an engineer, or a doctor, his success in life depends upon his ability to get on with and to handle men.

If American education is not actually in a deplorable condition, every one must admit that we do not produce our due proportion of great men. To do so, we must make over our whole system of elementary education, so that youth, instead of being put through vast machines for imparting facts, shall be put into small classes under intellectually strong women, and especially under intellectually strong and morally strong men, who shall develop the boy's mind and character, and send him forth into life properly equipped for the battle that inevitably awaits him.

LIMITING THE SKYSCRAPER.

THE increasing height of the tall office buildings, commonly designated skyscrapers, in our large cities is receiving,—none too soon,—considerable attention from the building departments; but few suggestions for the limitation of these towering structures have come from them. It is, as Mr. Montgomery Schuyler says, in *The Architectural Record*, "immensely to the credit of the architects that, while as individuals they may seem to have almost the most direct interest in the failure to restrict the height of buildings, as a body they are the only source from which have proceeded any practical measures for restriction." Mr. Schuyler gives an interesting analysis of two projects emanating from the well-known architects, Mr. Ernest Flagg, of New York, and Mr. D. Knickerbocker Boyd, of Philadelphia. Mr. Flagg's plan was, it appears, first proposed by Mr. George B. Post some years ago; but it has not been worked out in such detail.

Mr. Flagg proposes, in the first place, that no building which covers more than three-quarters of the entire plot on which it stands shall be allowed to exceed 100 feet in height. For the remaining quarter of the plot he would impose no restriction in height, excepting that the height mentioned shall not be exceeded within a distance from the front equal to that from the building line to the curb line,—that is to say, to the width of the sidewalk. . . . He would allow the purchase and sale between adjoining owners of the right to build high within the limits stated. Finally, he would require absolute incombustibility in all the material and equipment of buildings that went above the first limit, and that all their visible sides should be "treated architecturally."

One result of this plan would be to restore to the business streets the cornice line "which, in old times, was automatically imposed by the five stories which were the maximum that a visitor or tenant could be ex-



THE SKYLINE OF THE WEST SIDE OF BROADWAY, FROM STATE STREET TO CHAMBERS STREET.

pected to climb." The new cornice line fixed by the limitation to 100 feet, or eight stories, would be only half as high again as the old. Though the regulation would make New York "a city of towers," it does not follow, as Mr. Schuyler points out, that it would be "a tiara of proud towers."

You may prescribe that all the sides of your tall buildings shall be "treated architecturally," and the prescription is reasonable. But to make your tall building a sightly or attractive object, this superficial treatment is not sufficient. The aspiring dollar-hunter would continue to protrude stark parallelopipeds into the empyrean, just as he does now. . . . A collection of these shapelessnesses would not be as sightly; would, in fact, be far less sightly than a grove of factory chimneys, which already taper and have form and so far comeliness. And, although it would be a very good and civic thing if the owners of the parallelopipeds were required to give them form and comeliness . . . it were a fond imagination that the individualistic New Yorker, whose rampant individualism is, in fact, in this matter, the source of all our woes, would submit to such a limitation of his right to do what he will with his own. The parallelopiped is the form which gives him most space for rental and which can be most cheaply built. To prevent him from building it would seem to him a great outrage. As the American tourist said of the doctrine of eternal punishment, "Our people wouldn't stand it."

Whether or no Mr. Flagg's means would attain his ends, everybody will sympathize with him in his desire to make a more convenient and attractive city.

The plan of Mr. Boyd, who, it should be mentioned, is president of the Philadelphia chapter of the American Institute of Architects, is a very different one. He proposes that if a builder wishes to double the height of his permitted building, he must go back from the street for the superstructure by the depth of his substructure, and to triple his height go back again an equal depth for the second superstructure, and so on. He says:

I would limit the initial height,—that is to say, the maximum height at the established building line,—to one and a quarter times the width of the street. This would give our principal north and south streets, which are fifty feet in width, a sixty-two and a half foot high building if erected at the usual building line, which would be equivalent to a six-story building used for residential or office purposes, or a five-story light manufacturing establishment. On our east and west streets . . . which are sixty feet wide, the height of the building, if erected on our normal building line, could be seventy-five feet, or just about one story higher.

Now, if an imaginary line be drawn from the curb of any of these streets to the top of an imaginary building, the limit of height on the normal building line, and continued into space, it becomes the line of restriction that I have spoken of. The diagonal thereby becomes the height line and regulates the front building line as well. It thus becomes apparent at once that to go up one must go back, and it can roughly be figured upon for each additional story in height that two feet must be added to the width of the sidewalk.

It will be noticed that there is a great difference between the two plans as regards their esthetic results. Mr. Flagg proposes to "citify," to Parisianize the town to which his plan is applied, and he would restore the skyline of the street fronts. Mr. Boyd, on the other hand, believes in diversity and variegation. "A skyline which is a sierra has no terrors for him; neither has a street front, which is a series of ins and outs."

Mr. Schuyler thinks that the irregularizing of the public streets might, in the hands of architects of genius, result in something far more attractive than the actual Philadelphia or the actual New York; but,

keeping in view the actual race of architectural practitioners and the reasonable probabilities of our street architecture, a regular cornice line and a street front in a single plane seem to offer a better hope of a desirable result than a saw-toothed skyline and a higgledy-piggledy of alignment, accompanied by a frontage of sidewalks of varying width.

THE NEW PRINCIPLE IN COLONIZATION.

A MOST sane, as well as humanitarian, view of the principles which should guide the masters of equatorial Africa is given by Lucien Hubert, a French Deputy from Paris, writing in the *Deutsche Revue.* He also describes how France, on her part, is solving the problem.

A change, he contends, has of late taken place in the colonial idea. The conception of utilizing colonies has become less one-sided, less artificial.

An unexplored colony seems like an opening for the unemployed forces of the mother-country. The running of the vast and complicated machinery of a modern state requires abundant resources, and but too often these are lacking; the colonies yield the necessary addition. We occupy the virgin lands and interfere in the affairs of those imperfectly civilized states, not in order to divert our population into them or to gather a wealth which is as yet non-existent, but in order to create that wealth, to organize a social condition through our surplus labor-material. And if we clearly realize that there is no holier, more natural right than the right to labor, colonial conquest will not appear as the unjust robbing of the weak by the strong, but as a justified expropriation for a human benefit.

But is this not really expropriation? No, says M. Hubert, for "we abstract nothing from the original owners; we create an order of things calculated to give value to what before had none; to transform the fruitless soil into productive capital; finally, to convert those peoples, indolent, impotent to battle with Nature's phenomena, into an active force, obedient to a guiding hand."

This conception of the pathfinder's *rôle* has been aptly termed in France the "Policy of Association,"—association of the mother-country and its possession in a harmonious social system; association of European and native in the construction of a new edifice of human activity.

There where the civilized man's achievements are necessarily uncertain, since the climate renders his existence precarious; there where the native alone can perpetuate his race, association is essential to success. Protected, led, educated by the European, the native may eventually increase and prosper. He is the stuff without which nothing can be produced; we are the spirit that infuses him with life. They, these peoples, are the necessary aids, the raw forces which are to be ruled and guided, but which we must, above all, understand how to win and maintain. We recognize daily that the real treasure of our colonies consists not in the natural wealth or in great stretches, but in the native tribes, which we at first regarded so disdainfully;—man is the capital to be made productive. And that can be done only by raising his self-esteem, his dignity, by increasing his wants, and giving him a chance to satisfy them,—an incentive which comprises the strivings and the joy of life. This policy scorns artificial and too rapid means; it seeks only enduring results, the natural fruits of a social activity. Its aim is civilization; its means, freedom enlightened by reason.

Sketching in broad outlines how France has applied these principles in its fine West-African colony, the writer continues:

To proceed from conquest to pacification, to administrative organization and economic gain, does not suffice the civilizing zeal. Western Africa with its iron pathways and modern state-machinery has ceased to be a desert, a formless, disunited mass, a chaos of wastes and forests. We have created a country. We must now create a nation. After mastering the political and economic problems there remained a final one for solution which we have now reached:—man, the source of all wealth, who had to be drawn from his environment, which made him indolent; to be given favoring conditions, but whose spontaneous force must work the final wonder. Unable to people Africa ourselves, since it is so mercilessly inhospitable to us, we must intrust another race with the high mission of maintaining the light which we would disseminate ever farther and farther. The white man will remain the guiding brain; the negro, the achieving arm. It cannot be sufficiently emphasized that colonization is co-operation. Two races unite to accomplish a work which singly neither can perform. The European possesses all the elements of success, but he cannot live on the spot,—he is master of all but himself; the African lacks almost everything,—but he has himself. Unite the two and progress is assured: the white man cannot execute; the African cannot devise or will; the former will contrive and will for him. This determines the social bond which is the basis of colonization.

The negro, says this French writer, further, is a big child, intoxicated by too much liberty. "We have given him civil rights; must we go as far as to invest him with political ones? This has at various times been contemplated, but it was not encouraged by experience." He concludes:

But if it be unwise to at once assimilate peoples that through ages of barbarism are radically different from us, we must prepare them for emancipation by having them co-operate with us. All our offices are open to the natives. We have colored teachers, secretaries, judges, accountants, assistant doctors, etc. All can be convinced that if we have established ourselves in West Africa, it was done not alone for our advantage, but with a consciousness of our duty to elevate the natives,—the cause of the disinherited has always been our own.

And, it may be reiterated, that the French ideas of colonizing tropical countries, and particularly Africa, seem to be shared to-day by the other colonizing governments.

THE SERVANT QUESTION,—AS VIEWED IN PARIS.

"SOON there will be no one to wait on us!" Thus the beginning of a Parisian publicist's plaint upon the servant question in the French metropolis, in a recent issue of the *Correspondant,* issued fortnightly in the same metropolis. And Monsieur Gaston Jollivet proceeds with a set of grievances, one or two of which are similar to cis-Atlantic troubles:

In the first place, wages have risen very considerably during the past twenty-five or thirty years. A valet who would formerly have been satisfied with 70 francs ($14) a month, now receives 90 or 100. The chambermaid, who would have deemed 40 or 50 francs fair compensation, can now easily earn 50 or 60. And the same progressive rate applies to the rest of the servants, especially if you add to their wages so much for wine, laundry, and gifts, allowing, besides, if you happen to have a country house, a certain sum for tips. This last named source of revenue demands special attention, having passed from an accessory detail to a main principle, as the present example shows: "My valet," related a Parisian gentleman at his club, "was dumfounded this morning at the news that I henceforth proposed to spend four months of the year at my country place. He asked me what I thought my average number of visitors would come to. I, in my innocence, supposed he was making the inquiry because he feared there would be too much work for him, and I hastened to reassure him with the statement that I was not thinking of inviting anybody. But instead of brightening up, his face got still gloomier, and he replied, in a tone of deferential sadness, that if I were going to have no guests there would be no tips to make up for the unpleasantness of being absent from Paris for four months, and that he therefore preferred to give notice to leave. Upon which, after a deep and respectful bow, he turned upon his heel."

Another source of revenue dilated upon by M. Jollivet is the traditional old "dance of the basket-handle." When the French say that a cook, for instance, "makes the handle of the basket dance," they mean that upon each article purchased at the market cook makes a small private profit by charging her mistress a little more than the article actually cost. This system of theft is a recognized national institution, sanctified by ages of existence and scarcely opposed by truly patriotic French housewives. Hand in hand with this evil goes the analogous custom, complained of by the *Correspondant's* contributor, according to which domestic servants are paid commissions by the tradesmen who sell them goods for their masters' consumption. (This practice has not yet reached America,—at least not as a general custom,—although a parallel case seems to present itself when a wholesale merchant gives a secret bonus to the "buyer" who purchases goods for the retail merchant employing him.) But actual theft is common enough, so M. Jollivet avers, among Parisian servants, whom he describes as being chronically dishonest. And since they are at the same time carefully frugal in their personal expenditure,—

If valet, chambermaid, or cook have in the course of such a career made no rash investments, if the first has abstained from drinking much wine but ours during all his service, if the cook and the maid have not "played lady" too hard, then they may all "retire" while still young. I could mention one or two fashionable seaside resorts where "retired" servants have built handsome villas, which they let for the summer season in order to live in them the rest of the year and to stay at comfortable hotels of the capital or watering places like "ladies" and "gentlemen."

The spirit of "I'm as good as you,"—the very phrase employed by M. Jollivet,—the exactions of the local tribe of servants, their cupidity, dishonesty, ingratitude, and insolence, incline one to hire foreign domestics; but as these, too, are in most cases unsatisfactory because of other peculiarities, there seems nothing to do but try to improve the national brand.

In fact, this author believes that the servants would improve if their masters did. All servants should be made as comfortable as possible, in the best quarters possible, so as to feel really at home; they should be treated with less condescension and more consideration; too much work should not be asked of them, and when they fall ill they should receive almost the same sort of attention that a member of the family would under the circumstances. The social inferiority of servants should never be impressed upon them by manner or speech, while, on the other hand, there is no derogation of dignity in being liberal with "please" and "thank you." Domestics are well aware that employers of the right sort know how to be affable without being familiar; they indeed prefer aristocratic gentility to democratic roughness. "Nothing repels them so violently as the arrogance of an upstart, and their own want of gratitude is frequently founded on want of appreciation in their masters."

Written entirely from what one might call an "upper-class" point of view, this article is none the less fair and sympathetic.

SENTIMENTALITY IN MURDER TRIALS,—AN ITALIAN VIEW.

NOT long ago a well-known sculptor of Naples was haled before the bar of justice for killing his wife. The young woman, a public singer, had perhaps not been an ideal life companion to choose. Still, the couple had lived together and occupied the same room, where, one night, the husband shot his partner. From the moment the news was made public until the trial began, the daily papers were filled with articles describing the accused, if not as a genius, as a man of great talent and a worthy citizen. Thus he became an object of general sympathy, a great many unthinking people going so far as to consider him a victim entitled to pity,—instead of the woman he had murdered. Contrary to the usual custom, the prisoner was allowed to be taken to the "Palace of Justice" without irons, and to sit in a place of his own preference. He assumed the *rôle* of injured innocence, claiming immunity on the dual ground of being a "martyr to passion," and an altogether exceptional personage, both as man and as artist. For three whole days,—amid popular approval and applause which declared this culprit a hero,—he talked a sort of apologetic autobiography, narrating the story of his life down to the most insignificant details, and dwelling at great length on his professional ups and downs, his illusions and disappointments, the tale of his love and courtship, his marriage, his horrible suspicions, and so on, and so forth.

This affair furnishes a writer in the Roman *Nuova Antologia* the text for an assault upon the Italian manner of conducting trials for murder; and some of the animadversions he hurls at Italy seem to produce an echo in a language understood 4000 miles to the west of that Peninsula. But before verbally quoting Signor Garofalo, one should mention that trial by jury is relatively a novel institution in Italy,—as, in fact, Italy is itself a new kingdom,—that the jurors are chosen by lot, that they are not paid for their services, that they are not secluded as ours are; there exist rules, however, providing for exemption or rejection of certain prospective jurymen. Referring to the Neapolitan affair as typical, Signor Garofalo says:

> Ought this kind of thing to be tolerated? Ought it not to be understood that an assize court is not intended for lectures upon auto-psychology? . . . An artist considering himself a *superman* is a piece of fatuity often to be met with; but how strange that this slayer of a woman should have been acclaimed as he passed along the corridors, and applauded when he arrived in the court-room by a miscellaneous public, just as though he had performed some heroic exploit! Sympathy for a *passional* offender might be comprehensible, in some cases; one might agree to regard such an one as an unfortunate rather than as a criminal; but misfortune should evoke pity, not plaudits. Those proffered to the uxoricide were symptomatic of moral perversion, and ought to have been sternly repressed by the president of the court. . . . The president might well have taken advantage of the power given him by law to exclude everything from the proceedings tending to lengthen them unduly. He ought to have examined the accused upon the exact circumstances of the crime itself, demanding succinct answers, obliging him to state precisely *those facts which, according to the law,* could be adduced in exoneration of his act of homicide. All the long preliminary chapters of romance recited by the sculptor were entirely superfluous. . . . When the statutes compel a dozen individuals to leave their business and sit gratuitously as jurymen, one would suppose that no more would be expected of such citizens than the sacrifice of some days, or of a few weeks at most. Then, how ask that the sacrifice continue for months, indefinitely? By what right are the jurors compelled to listen, not only to what may be necessary for deciding as to the prisoner's guilt, but to all that may throw light upon the evolution of his thought, his mentality, his instincts, his character, his emotions, his whole soul-development, as if he were one of the great historical personages of mankind? Under such considerations, is it surprising if some citizens who are busy enough with their own affairs or families take refuge in any kind of excuse to escape a duty which has become so ungrateful, burdensome, and unendurable? As a matter of fact, it frequently happens that the majority of a jury is composed of inferior elements, of uncultured men unable to exercise those faculties of a highly trained mind, analysis and synthesis, indispensable for the framing of correct views upon subtle questions of what is termed "morbid psychology."

Believing that the minute probing and dissecting of a murderer's motives constitute an extreme abuse, and that such detailed exposition is usually quite unnecessary as evidence, this writer adds the averment that on Italian juries the majority belong to classes of the population standing on a low moral plane, who are only too ready to understand homicidal violence. Before introducing the jury system, opines this outspoken gentleman, it ought to have been recognized that actual representation of the people at large would be very undesirable, and that the best juries

would be obtained among men least representative of popular sentiment. And the undemocratic Signor Garofalo, who has no faith in the saying *vox populi, vox Dei,* finally points to what he considers specific local phenomena in the exculpation of so many guilty persons:

In our country, we do not content ourselves with seeking the proof of the prisoner's guilt and his responsibility therefor in the facts of the offense, but we must needs discover the most hidden moral operations which gradually transform a normal individual into a criminal. Neither is this peculiarity devoid of significance to those familiar with the ways of thought proper to the Latin race. Here in Italy a murder arouses indignation only if the motive happens to be a base one, or if the delinquent happens to cut a vile or contemptible figure. All the arts of the defense are employed to establish the slayer's innate generosity. Among our people, upon the horror of the sight of a murdered man quickly follows curiosity for the motives of the deed; and when these have been laid bare, the crime stands not only *explained* but *justified.* This because in our lower social classes, through a deficiency of moral development, it is not yet appreciated that the killing of a man is inexcusable but in self-defense, and that it is a heinous act under any other circumstances; it is not appreciated that the first token of a people's civilization is respect for the lives of others. Thus, while the State, in Italy, refuses to acknowledge the right of putting a murderer to death by law, the notion nevertheless prevails that the penalty of death may be inflicted by a private citizen to avenge any kind of wrong. . . . In the interest of primitive justice and the diminution of crime it must be stated categorically that the method of procedure in our courts to-day is altogether pernicious. All the small particulars gleaned from the prisoner's life history are presented to the jury as an unbroken chain of causes producing a certain state of mind and determining the crime. The occurrence then appears predestined. Fate excludes guilt. The jurors feel they must forgive. Our legislation ought to have counteracted such tendencies in the first place, and the judges in charge of proceedings ought to fight against them now. But it is just they who often follow the tide, through want of sufficient force of character or through dread of unpopularity, by which they allow themselves to be overwhelmed.

WHAT WILL BRAZIL DO WITH HER NAVY?

IN the *Leitura para Todos,* the weekly review of Rio de Janeiro, there is an article by Senhor Demetrio A. Ribeiro, treating of the naval and military resources of Brazil. The writer expresses considerable irritation at the tone adopted by certain American newspaper correspondents, on the occasion of the Hague Peace Conference. He also blames the American and European press for exaggerating the importance of every slight disturbance of the peace and of every economic difficulty in Brazil, or in the other South American states, and he calls upon his fellow countrymen to prove that, " if we are not as highly civilized as are the older nations, we are not far behind them." Referring to the new large battleships building for Brazil, Senhor Ribeiro then proceeds to state the present naval program of his country, and to urge the necessity of providing for a larger number of vessels. Referring to the financial requirements, he says:

The population of Brazil is estimated at about 22,000,000. An average annual tax of $1.50, imposed during five years, would cover all the necessary expenses. Let us suppose that 6,000,000 inhabitants contributed their quota; at the end of the period the government would have no less than $45,000,000 . . . with this sum, we could secure a few 20,000-ton battleships, as well as torpedo-boats and submarines,—enough to constitute a first-class navy. The program of naval construction now in process of execution is as follows: Three battleships of 19,000 tons, at a cost of $9,000,000 each (these are the vessels which have excited so much newspaper discussion); three express-cruisers of 3500 tons, at a cost of $1,350,000 each; eighteen destroyers of 600 tons, at $325,000 each; one mine-layer of 3000 tons, at $750,000, and a few submarines and small torpedo craft, the total tonnage being 80,000 and the cost $39,500,000.

With these the total tonnage of the Brazilian navy would guarantee us the eighth place among the greater powers, setting us before Austria. . . . The enemies of this project, when conquered by facts, appeal to the enormous burden to which the country must submit in order to carry it out. But what crushing burden would be imposed upon a nation, if a few million of its inhabitants should be forced to contribute the trifling sum of $7.50 in the course of five years?

The writer then proceeds to treat of the military forces of Brazil, and calls attention to the great disparity between the preparations made by Argentina and those carried on in Brazil. The Brazilian War Minister has declared that Brazil will have 450,000 men on a war-footing in ten years' time, but Senhor Ribeiro is not satisfied with this, believing that at least 1,000,000 men should be trained and prepared for war. He thinks that if Brazil had an army and navy of adequate strength this would be " a guaranty not only for the integrity of her own territory, but also for that of all the South American states."

THE OTTOMAN CONSTITUTION AND ITS EFFECT ON THE ORIENT.

SELDOM, if ever, in the history of modern nations has there been a more rapid transformation of character or a more thorough change of feelings than those witnessed in the Ottoman Empire on the promulgation of a constitution. Moslems and Christians, Jews and Armenians, Greeks and Bulgarians, —in fact, all the heterogeneous elements that form the polyglot Ottoman Empire,—embraced one another, shedding tears of joy. An Arabic weekly entitled *Al Imran* (prosperity), published in Cairo, Egypt, by a Christian Syrian, has this to say:

At this moment nothing interests every Ottoman subject so much as to read the news about the constitution and hear the views of the wise concerning it. He is interested in the constitution because it has brought him out of the darkness of despotism into the light of justice and made him a man in every sense of the word after he had been led like dumb driven cattle by the hands of men devoid of right and responsibility. . . . It is clear that our new national and patriotic life has begun on the 24th of July, 1908,—that is, from the day in which the irade of our lord and master, the most exalted Khalif, and the Commander of the Faithful, was issued proclaiming the constitution and changing the absolute monarchy into a parliamentary government, which was enjoined by God, established by Islam, and practiced by the orthodox khalifs, and which was the cause of European progress and their advancement in education and civilization.

A correspondent of *Al Muayyed,* a nationalist Arabic daily of Cairo telegraphed to his paper an interesting account from Beirut, Syria, as to how the first news of the restoration of the constitution was received in that town. When the intelligence announcing the constitution came from Constantinople to Beirut the representative of the governor felt too timid to announce it publicly, and for two days people talked about it in whispers only. The dread of thirty years of despotism could not be overcome at once. It was on the arrival of the new governor, on the third day, that the news was officially proclaimed and the censorship was removed from the newspapers. Then the whole city decorated itself. Flags and bunting were strung up, branches of palm were arched across the streets, and rugs were brought out so that in some of the bazars the streets were carpeted. The shopkeepers decorated their windows, fireworks and balloons were sent up at night, and orators addressed a meeting of from 10,000 to 15,000 people. The Moslems extended the



AHMED-RIZA, THE MOST INFLUENTIAL OF TURKISH EDITORS.

(Editor of the *Mechveret,* the Paris organ of the Young Turkish party.)

Islamic salutation to the Christians: "Eas salaam alickum ya akhie" ("Peace be unto you, my brother").

The Young Turkish party, as the promoters of the bloodless revolution are called, has issued an official circular throughout the Turkish dominions setting forth the aims and objects of the party with a view to removing all doubts and suspicions created by the hostile comments of the European press in the minds of Ottoman subjects. According to this circular, the aims of the party are:

(1) The fundamental and final aim of the party is to establish the constitution of 1876. The party hopes that the European powers will co-operate with it in this respect, as they themselves tried in the past to procure reforms for the Ottoman subjects. (2) The party officially



NIAZI BEY, WHOSE TELEGRAM TO THE SULTAN PRECIPITATED THE TURKISH REVOLUTION.

(He gave the signal for military revolt throughout the Sultan's dominions. The Arabic inscription on his cap reads, "Fedaï Vatan"—"All for the Fatherland.")

announces that it harbors no ill feeling toward the Moslem subjects of Turkey, and that the blessings of constitutional government will be shared by all Osmanlis without any distinction of race or religion. (3) The party had recourse to harsh measures only when obliged either to meet dangerous circumstances, to put down the greatest enemies of liberty or in self-defense. (4) The party scrupulously avoided the shedding of blood, as the Ottoman Empire had suffered in the past enough loss of precious lives. There would be no wonder if the partisans of the old régime should try to cause bloodshed even now in order to discredit the Young Turkish party. (5) The champions of liberty will defend the towns and villages against the attack of foreign bands and encourage the people to strengthen the bond of union and fraternity.

The *Lewa* (the *Standard*), also of Cairo, in regard to the influence of the Turkish constitution upon the Islamic world, says:

Between Constantinople and all capitals of Moslem countries there exists a tie which joins hearts and souls, and that tie is the tie of Islam, which unites the Faithful to the center of Khilafet. There occurs no incident at Constantinople, but it touches the hearts of the Moslems either with joy or grief. Hence you will find us, the people of the Crescent, looking with an eye that does not dazzle and a devotion that does not relax at what is taking place in the streets of our second Kibleh.

India, during the past three years, has been in a state of unrest, which has reached its climax at present. The news of the adoption of a constitution in Turkey added fuel to the fire. The *Bengalee* remarks:

When Asiatic rulers like those of Turkey and Persia have conferred free institutions upon their subjects we are entitled to ask, What is England doing in India? To say that the subjects of the Sultan and the Shah are better fitted for free institutions than the highly cultured races of India is to imply the gravest reflection upon British rule. Asia is moving; Britain is not. Asia is acting, while Britain is cogitating. But the hour for cogitation is past and gone. The time for action has arrived,—action not in the shape of repression or prosecution for sedition, but action which will pacify and conciliate and which will convince "the better mind" of India that under British rule the highest possibilities of national expansion might be attained. That is the test, the supreme test, which the better mind of India insists upon, and may God grant our rulers the wisdom to satisfy the test and thus enable England to fulfill, in the language of her most illustrious sons, "her high mission in the East."

A Keen Russian Analysis.

The *Vyestnik Yevropy*, of St. Petersburg, commenting on the affairs in Turkey, makes comparisons not complimentary to Russian reforms. The writer says:

Instead of high-flowing phrases and wide-sweeping programs, we see here a series of important practical acts, sugared over with sweet diplomatic forms. The keenest measures are taken and promptly realized in the name of the Sultan, leaving him the outward appearance of authority. No strife of principles interferes with the thorough and all-sided pulling down of the old régime. The strange, complicated economic system of the Padishah's court is gradually liquidating; a multitude of idle and expensive offices are abolished; hundreds and thousands of agents, living by denunciation and espionage, are dismissed; and the embezzlers of the previous ministers and court dignitaries forced to disgorge the appropriated capital and then sent to all the winds. The ex-naval minister thus had to disgorge some hundred thousand Turkish pounds [about $500,000] in order to save himself from stern justice and punishment. The estates divided among favorites out of the imperial and court possessions were restored to the state treasury. This measure of dispensing justice on the old plunderers, free from any shadow of revenge or unnecessary severity, satisfies the public opinion with its honesty and, at the same time, restores to the state treasury a considerable portion of the sums that were embezzled.

The *rôle* of western European diplomacy at Constantinople, the writer in this Russian review goes on to say, will eventually change. The empire, long accounted hopelessly sick, has of a sudden undergone a radical cure and has equipped itself with determination and ability to save itself from its old chronic infirmity.

THE SULTAN OF TURKEY AS HE IS.

NOT as he is popularly supposed to be; not as he exists in the imagination of the public, which forms its estimate of "the Sick Man of Europe" from fragmentary accounts in the newspapers and an occasional sketch or two in the "illustrateds." In the *American Magazine* for November, Mr. Nicholas C. Adossides contributes an article on the Sultan, which he says is "a record of personal observations and of private knowledge." Mr. Adossides' father, the late Adossides Pasha, was for forty-six years a high official under four sultans; and Mr. Adossides himself was for some years an attaché of the Turkish Foreign Office, and on account of his liberal tendencies was obliged to flee the country. According to this writer, the Sultan is "an invalid, a degenerate of the higher order."

Descended from sickly princes, whose lives were spent half in the gloom of a prison, half in the wanton luxury of the serai; son, grandson, and great-grandson of lazy slaves of different races; himself the child of a consumptive mother and a tubercular father, he belongs to an enfeebled dynasty that is afflicted with every kind of disease, both of body and mind, to the point of insanity.

Abdul-Hamid II. is sixty-six years old, having been born September 22, 1842; and his personal appearance is portrayed as follows:

Rather tall and exceedingly slender, Abdul-Hamid has the unstudied stoop of the consumptive. His face is wrinkled parchment, as if a thousand anxieties had left their impress there. His features, besides cruelty and cunning, denote intelligence and cowardice. The eyes, of almond shape, by far the most interesting detail of his person, are dark and piercing, aged with eternal suspicion. They denote high intellect, extraordinary intelligence, subtle refinement and pitiless cruelty. The thin upper lip and the thick lower indicate a combination of passion, irascibility, and selfishness. His nose is aquiline, and lends to his face the appearance of a bird of prey. The chin, though hidden by a beard, is weak and indecisive.

What strikes one, on reading the foregoing, is that for "a consumptive and the child of consumptive parents," sixty-six is a tolerably good old age, especially when one remembers that the Sultan has brothers and sisters almost as old as himself.

All who have come in contact with Abdul-Hamid have been impressed by one item in his personality, and that is his remarkable voice.

It is marvelously subtle and insinuating, melodious in its modulations, and full of dulcet tones. With this remarkable voice he has been able to seduce nearly everybody who has approached him, even his antagonists.

Mr. Adossides recollects that his father once said: "Although I know how cruel this man is, yet I never approach him without being impressed by his finesse and charm."

Yildiz Palace, the home of the monarch, resembles a prison rather than a palace. Here the Sultan lives self-immured and surrounded by fortresses and thousands of soldiers. It is a prison, too, for the hundreds of women who compose the imperial harem, as well as for the court officials; for every one "feels the despotism, the perpetual dread that centers around the gloomy person of the monarch."

But for a prison, it is a fine one, as big as a town,—a city one might say,—built on the crest of a hill at the mouth of the Bosphorus, and containing in itself everything,—palaces great and small, kiosks, belvederes, arsenals provided with quick-firing guns, museums, observatories, mosques, lakes, shops, work-rooms, stables, etc.

The most remarkable thing about Yildiz, however, is the collection of spies, which is "the finest that could possibly be gathered together." (It should be mentioned that Mr. Adossides' article was written just before the recent proclamation by the Sultan of a constitution.)

The Sultan has shown craftiness in the selection of his bodyguard, which consists of 16,000 men. These have been chosen from the Albanians, the Kurds, and the Arabs, who hate each other like poison, so that if one of these races should plot against His Majesty, it would at once be denounced by the others. The ruler's policy consists in studying the vices of the members of his entourage, and making such use of their weaknesses, hatreds, jealousies, and discords as to render a combination against him impossible.

Espionage in Turkey may be said to have been developed into a fine art. The entire household of the monarch is full of spies; and even men of the same household and blood are pitted against each other. Mr. Adossides cites the somewhat amusing case of Munir Pasha, ex-Ambassador to France, who was directed to spy on his own father, the latter, in turn, being appointed to spy on his son. The two used to compare their reports; and, after having adjusted them "in the best interests of the family," they were sent in to His Majesty.

Mr. Adossides is insistent in his denunciation of the Sultan's personal cruelty. He cites the case of a Circassian odalisque who, as an inmate of the royal harem, had gained such favor that she was allowed to enter the Sultan's apartments unannounced.

One evening she entered as usual, and finding His Majesty asleep, she examined the various bric-a-brac scattered here and there, her attention being particularly attracted by a jeweled pistol lying on a table. At this point the Sultan, suddenly opening his eyes, asked with apparent calm: "What are you doing?"

"Nothing, your Majesty," replied the girl.

"But you are looking at something."

"Yes, sire,—it is so pretty,—this."

"And what do you call that object?"

"A pistol," answered the favorite.

"And what is a pistol used for?"

"To kill, sire," replied the Circassian in a trembling voice.

"To kill? Let me see," and picking up another pistol, he fired three times, fatally injuring the innocent girl.

The officer who told Mr. Adossides this story was on duty in the corridors when the girl's body, covered with a rug, was silently carried through the doors.

The Sultan has a deep detestation of newspapers. After expending enormous sums in inducing certain journals in France, Germany, and Austria to write favorably of himself, he has failed utterly to bring over to his side a single English paper. He has therefore sworn an undying hatred toward the press in general, and to the English press in particular. When a ruler is assassinated, no newspaper in Constantinople is allowed to chronicle the violent death.

President Carnot, President McKinley, the Empress of Austria, and the Shah of Persia all died of "an affection of the heart." When King Alexander of Servia died, the Constantinople papers said that Queen Draga, his wife, wept and bewailed her husband surrounded by the officers of the King, and that some days later she died of grief. The assassination at Lisbon was reported as follows: "It pleased the Almighty to recall to Himself the soul of King Carlos of Portugal and his elder son."

Mr. Adossides has much to say concerning the state of Turkey under the old régime, which all well-wishers of the new Ottoman Empire will gladly regard as belonging to a closed chapter of the history of Turkey.

THE AWAKENING OF THE SLAVONIANS.

IN Eastern Europe there is now enacting a drama of historic consequence for the Slavonic race. Bulgaria, with eastern Rumelia, has declared her independence of Turkey; Servia is eager to fight Austria for Bosnia and Herzegovina; Montenegro and Albania are restive; while the Slavonic nations under Austrian dominion rejoice at the union to Austria of Bosnia and Herzegovina that will increase the already predominant number of the Slavonic members of the Austrian Parliament. The joy of the Poles and Bohemians will be understood when it is considered that Austria if she wish to keep Bosnia and Herzegovina, must,—to satisfy Servia and avoid war,—grant those provinces such an autonomy as Hungary enjoys, and this would entail the granting of a like autonomy to Galicia and Bohemia.

The Slavonic world has awakened, and we find these opinions reflected in its press. Hitherto, each Slavonic nation has gone its way separately,—and, thanks to this want of union among them, they have fallen under the dominion or influence of the foreigner. In latter times, however, there has arisen a movement of fraternization among the members of the Slavonic race. A visible expression of this movement was the Pan-Slavonic Congress held in Prague, Bohemia, from July 12 to 18 last, at which there gathered representatives of the Bohemian, Bulgarian, Croatian, Polish, Russian, Ruthenian, Servian, and Slovenian nations to discuss measures for the common good of Slavondom. This movement, which began with the visit last May to St. Petersburg and Warsaw of three representatives of the Slavonians under Austro-Hungarian dominion,—the Bohemian Dr. Charles Kramarz, the Slovenian Dr. John Hribar, and the Ruthenian Dr. Nicholas Hlibovicki, the officers of the Slavonic Committee in the Vienna Parliament, to arrange the long-talked-of Pan-Slavonic Congress in Moscow,—has received the name of "Neo-Slavism" to distinguish it from the "Pan-Slavism" of the '60's of the last century. While the old pan-Slavonic movement operated under the patronage of the Russian Government and its bureaucrats,—and for the aggrandizement of Russia,—the new movement aims at a union of the Slavonic nations on the principle of their equality, liberty, and self-action, and not a union under the hegemony of any one Slavonic state.

Hitherto, the members of the Slavonic family have lived apart, and in some cases even at enmity,—a state of affairs which has been to the advantage of Germany exclusively. Of special advantage to the common foe and special damage to the Slavonic cause has been the long feud between Russia and the Poles. The last steps in the German-Polish feud,—the expulsion of the Polish language from the schools of Prussian Poland and the resulting strike of 125,000 school children; the wholesale compulsory expropriation of Polish landowners, enacted by the Prussian Diet; and the prohibition of the Polish tongue at meetings, enacted by the German Parliament,—have surrounded the Polish nation in the eyes of the Slavonic world with the aureola of its true bulwark against the eastward press of Germanism. But the oppression of the Poles under Russian dominion restrains the development of the forces of the Polish nation, thus weakening Slavondom and invigorating Germany.

The chief object of the movement to effect Slavonic union may be said to be to bring about a reconciliation of the Poles with Russia. The forces of the Polish nation, declared Dr. Kramarz before the formal conference, can develop solely of themselves, solely by their own work and organization. We summarize from a report of his speech in the *Glos Warszawski,* of Warsaw.

For the Poles to-day a strong Russia is requisite; but, for Russia also, if she care to look farther into the future and understand the dangers threatening her, there is needful a strong Polish nation developing on its soil such a culture and such an economic well-being that it may oppose the high culture pressing on it from the west. Hence, the Polish-Russian question must be solved on the basis of the granting to the Poles of the right to concern themselves about their own needs, to be under their own management, the right to broad autonomy, Russia keeping for herself what is indispensable to the preservation of her power and unity.

The task of the neo-Slavonic movement in Russia is to produce a wide current of opinion in that country that will gradually lead the Russian state upon the road of the Slavonic policy, and by liberating it from the German influences at present dominating it, make of Russia a Slavonic state not in name only, but in fact also. The views of Dr. Kramarz met with understanding in Russia among the representatives of the liberal Opposition, men of the character of Lvov, Fiodorov, Milukov, Shingarev, and Maxim Kovalevski. In opening the congress Dr. Kramarz, who greeted each delegation in its own tongue, said to the Russians:

In our congress we will not and cannot intermeddle in the internal relations of any state. All we wish is that the idea of Slavonic mutuality and Slavonic brotherhood may be realized, that it strike its root deep in the heart of the whole Slavonic world; we wish that in all Slavondom there should prevail the consciousness that solely through the admission of free cultural and national development to every one of the Slavonic nations can there be solved the differences between the Slavonic nations; we wish to find the means of effecting Slavonic mutuality in practical, cultural, and economic life. We want nothing else than that all of us attain the consciousness that we have common, real interests; that all the Slavonic nations are a living organism, whose vitality is threatened when one or another branch withers; that the Russian will suffer when the Pole will succumb in the struggle with Germanism; that both the Poles and Russians would suffer if we Bohemians should not succeed in fulfilling the tasks of the Slavonic vanguard; and that all of us shall suffer if great Russia become weak.

Although a number of subjects was discussed at the Prague Congress, the real axis of the discussions was the Polish-Russian question, and the most important moment of the congress was on the final day (July 18), when the Russian delegation, which was composed in considerable part,—perhaps even predominantly,—of reactionary elements, felt itself morally compelled, in view of the entire course of the congress, to move the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:

The Slavonic Congress recognizes the vitality and productiveness of pan-Slavonic union, and regards as indispensable to this the removal of the discords and disagreements between the Slavonic nations, which can be effected solely by the universal recognition and application of the principles of equal rights, of the free development of every nation, by the recognition of its cultural and national separateness.

The Prague Congress voted the arranging of a Pan-Slavonic exhibition in Moscow in 1911; the organization of Slavonic cultural unions; the founding of a Slavonic bank, with a central seat in Prague and branches in St. Petersburg, as well as other leading Slavonic cities, and also in Paris, London, Constantinople, and Salonika; the organization of Slavonic press bureaus and a Slavonic telegraph bureau; the organization in all Slavonic countries of "Falcon" (Sokol) gymnastic societies; and elected a Slavonic Central Committee. The Slavonic Central Committee elected is composed of twelve members,—three Poles, three Russians, and one each of the Bohemian, Bulgarian, Croatian, Ruthenian, Servian, and Slovenian nations. Dr. Kramarz is the president of the committee, which is to see to the embodiment in life of the resolutions passed by the Prague Congress.

EDUCATION AND SOCIALISM.

WHAT is likely to be the permanent attitude of a scientific mind toward the claims of thoroughgoing Socialism,—whether generally conservative or the opposite, and whether there will be an alliance between intelligence and discontented labor, are questions well worth asking and, if possible, answering, writes Professor John Bates Clark in the *Atlantic Monthly* for October. He admits that the following list of arguments make out an effective case for Socialism: "The beauty of its ideal; the glaring inequalities of the present system; the reduc-



PROFESSOR JOHN BATES CLARK.

tion of the difficulty of managing great industries through public officials; the growing evils of private monopoly, and the preference for public monopoly as a mode of escape." On the other hand, there are certain considerations which reduce the attractiveness of the socialistic ideal. For example, Would the abolition of private property result in the transformation of humanity into a great band of brethren?

Differences of wealth which now excite envy would, of course, be removed. The temptation to covetousness would be reduced, since there would not be much to covet. There would be nothing a man could do with plunder,—unless he could emigrate with it.

But, though there would be no differences of possessions between man and man, there would be considerable differences in the desirability of various kinds of labor.

Some work is safe and some is dangerous; some is agreeable and some is disagreeable. . . . In industries managed by the state there would be no practicable way of avoiding the necessity of assigning men to disagreeable, arduous, unhealthful, or dangerous employments. Selections of men for such fields of labor would in some way have to be made, and those selected for the undesirable tasks would have to be held to them by public authority. Well would it be if the men so consigned, looking upon the more fortunate workers, were not good material for an army of discontent.

Again, in the new state the desire for public position would be intensified, as the prizes which would appeal to most men would be those of officialdom.

Is it in reason to suppose that the method of securing the offices would be better then than it is at present? Would a man work quietly at his task in the shoe-shop, the bakery, or the mine, waiting for the office to which he aspired to seek him out? Would rings be less general than they are now? Could there fail to be bosses and political machines? . . . To the sober second thought, which mental training ought to favor, it appears that the claim of the socialistic state to a peculiar moral state of excellence brought about by its equality of possessions needs a very thorough sifting.

Granting for the sake of argument that the socialistic plan of industry would work smoothly on the political side, there are three specific consequences that might result from it: The first of these is the check that Socialism might impose on technical progress.

At present we see a bewildering succession of inventions transforming the industries of the world. Machine after machine appears in rapid succession, each displacing its predecessor, working for a time and giving way to still better devices. . . . The progress goes on without cessation, since the thing which guarantees it is the impulse of self-preservation. An employer *must* improve his mechanism if his rivals do so.

Now, though it is possible that under Socialism men may, from altruistic motives, be led to make inventions and discoveries, it is certain that competition compels progress at a rapid rate, whereas it is very uncertain what progress would be insured where other motives are relied upon.

Then there is the difficulty of enlarging capital.

In the socialistic state all the incomes of the year would be pooled. There would be no special and personal profit for any one. . . . Every one would be a laborer, and every one would get his daily or weekly stipend; and if capital had to be increased it could only be done by withholding some part of that stipend.

A third consequence of the socialistic plan

of industry has to do with the growth of population. Socialism proposes to place families in a condition in which children are maintained without cost to parents. Now if the state should provide for children from their birth to the end of their lives, the particular influence that puts a check on the size of families would be absent.

Leaving the unfavorable possibilities of Socialism, "which bulk large in an intelligent view," Professor Clark suggests a study of the present industrial system and its tendencies. Here the testimony of facts is convincing.

There is not only progress but a law of progress. . . . Mere labor will have increasing power to create wealth, and to get wealth, as its methods improve and its tools more and more abound. This will not transform the workingman's life in a day; but it will give him tomorrow more than he gets to-day. It will enable his own efforts to raise him surely and steadily toward the condition of which he dreams.

There are difficulties to be surmounted, one of the greatest of which is the vanishing of much competition.

The eager rivalry in perfecting methods and multiplying products, which is at the basis of our confidence in the future, seems to have here and there given place to monopoly, which always means apathy and stagnation. We have before us a struggle to keep alive the essential force of competition; and this fact reveals the very practical relation which intelligence sustains to the different proposals for social improvement. It must put us in the way of surmounting those evils which mar the present prospect. Trained intelligence here has its task marked out for it: it must show that monopoly can be effectively attacked, and must point out the way to do it.

SCHOLARSHIP AND PHYSIQUE.

"IF there is any truth in statistics, the world's work and greatest achievements are to be attained by the men as a class who have the best brains in the best bodies." This is the conclusion arrived at by Prof. D. A. Sargent, of Harvard University, after a series of exhaustive investigations, the details of which he publishes in the *Popular Science Monthly* for September. When, in 1893, Dr. W. T. Porter, now professor of comparative physiology in the Harvard Medical School, reported that, after examining 30,000 children attending the public schools of St. Louis, Mo., he found that the pupils in the higher grades were on the average taller and heavier than those in the lower,—in other words, that the brightest children were the strongest physically,—many teachers were inclined to doubt the accuracy of his assertion.

It is of great scientific interest, therefore, to note that Porter's conclusions have since been confirmed by observations made by Hastings in Omaha, by Byer in Cambridge, Christopher in Chicago, Roberts in London, Burgenstein in Vienna, and by Leharzig in St. Petersburg. In the face of such a body of concurrent statistics from different parts of this country and Europe, no one can doubt for a moment the natural relationship between a vigorous brain and a vigorous body.

Not with growing youth only is this relationship of mind and body to be found, but it appears to be true of all classes of individuals when taken collectively. In England, for instance, the two extremes of brain power may be said to be represented by the fellows of the Royal Society and the professional class as the highest and by lunatics, criminals, and imbeciles as the lowest. It has been ascertained that between these two



DR. DUDLEY A. SARGENT.

classes there is a difference of 4.88 inches in average height and of thirty-seven pounds in average weight in favor of the former. It has also been demonstrated that conditions that affect one class of persons in England may be said to affect in a similar way the same class of persons in America. In order to ascertain whether among college students, —" who may be said to represent the intermediate class on the way from growing youth to men of intellectual eminence and distinction,"—the highest in scholarship would have also the best physiques, Professor Sargent has compiled from his statistics at Harvard University the following interesting table:

Group.	No. of observation.	GROUPS ON WHICH OBSERVATIONS WERE MADE.	Height. Inches.	Weight. Pounds.	Str'gth.
1	240	University Crew from 1880 to 1900	69.9	152.1	625
2	295	University Football from 1880 to 1900	69.5	157.6	652
3	505	Lawrence Scientific School from 1902 to 1906	68.7	143.3	680
4	530	Academic Department from 1904 to 1906	68.7	140	650
5	300	First Fifty Strong Men from 1893 to 1900	68.5	151	960
6	77	Honor Scholarship Men, Group I., 1899 to 1906	68.5	134.5	550
7	300	Honor Scholarship Men, Groups I and II., 1899 to 1906	68.3	135.6	550
8	232	Honor Scholarship Men, Group II, 1899 to 1906	68.1	135.6	560
9	84	Stipend Scholarship Men, Group III., 1899 to 1906	67.9	135.6	560
10	500,000	Average American in 1860 (Army Standard)	67.7	136.05	...
11	1,000	University Students in 1880	67.7	135.2	490
12	106	Stipend Scholarship Men, Group I., 1899 to 1906	67.7	130.1	530
13	109	Stipend Scholarship Men in early eighties	67.5	132.3	420
14	431	Stipend Scholarship Men, Groups I., II., III	67.5	131.2	540
15	178	Stipend Scholarship Men, Group II., 1899 to 1906	67.1	130.1	530

It will be noticed that the average weight and height of the Harvard student were about the same as those of the American youth (from twenty-one to twenty-six years of age) who entered the army in 1860.

At the present time the average student is an inch taller and from four to eight pounds heavier than the average student of 1880, while his strength has increased from 490 to 650 and 680, a gain of 140 and 190 points. In 1880 only 50 per cent. of the Harvard students would have surpassed the height and weight of the army average. To-day over 65 per cent. would pass that standard. This is a most remarkable uplift in growth and development . . . in twenty-five years.

Further, " the Scientific School students are heavier and stronger than the academic students, a fact frequently referred to by the late Professor Shaler."

Without following Professor Sargent through his analysis of the above table, we may quote some of the more important of his observations on the students of to-day. He says:

The diminutive weight upon the part of all scholarship men may be accounted for in several ways. . . . In order to meet the demands of the present scholarship standard, it is necessary to hold oneself down to many hours of highly concentrated and long-sustained mental effort. . . . The body for the time being is literally being starved in order that the brain may be surfeited. If this intense mental activity is followed by a moderate amount of physical exercise . . . no harm follows from hard study. . . . If to intense mental application are added worry, fear of failure, loss of sleep, or great emotional strain,—then mental work soon becomes exhausting.

When students are asked why they do not give more attention to the upbuilding of their bodies, they invariably answer: " We have no time for it." While this is true in many instances, Professor Sargent says that

in the majority of cases the answer of " no time " means that these men do not regard health and physical vigor of sufficient importance to work for it; or, if they do, they fear that while they are taking time for improving their bodies, their nearest rivals are at the everlasting grind that will give them possession of the much-coveted scholarships. Here is an anomalous condition.

While the physique of athletes and the average student has greatly improved during the past twenty-five years,

the physique of all the scholarship men of to-day is not only below the average student of the present time, but the physique of the stipend scholarship men is actually below that of the average student of 1880.

There are attracted to the college and universities two distinct types of young men, who may be termed scholars and athletes. These are naturally antagonistic, and both pursue the means of education and training as though they were ends in themselves. " The consequence is superior physiques with mediocre mental ability in one class, and inferior physiques with fine mental attainments in the other."

A large part of the athletic class will fail in the race for life for want of better trained minds, while an equally large class of scholarship men will be eliminated from the struggle for the want of more efficient bodies. What is the college doing to even up the chances of these two classes in their preparation for their life's work?

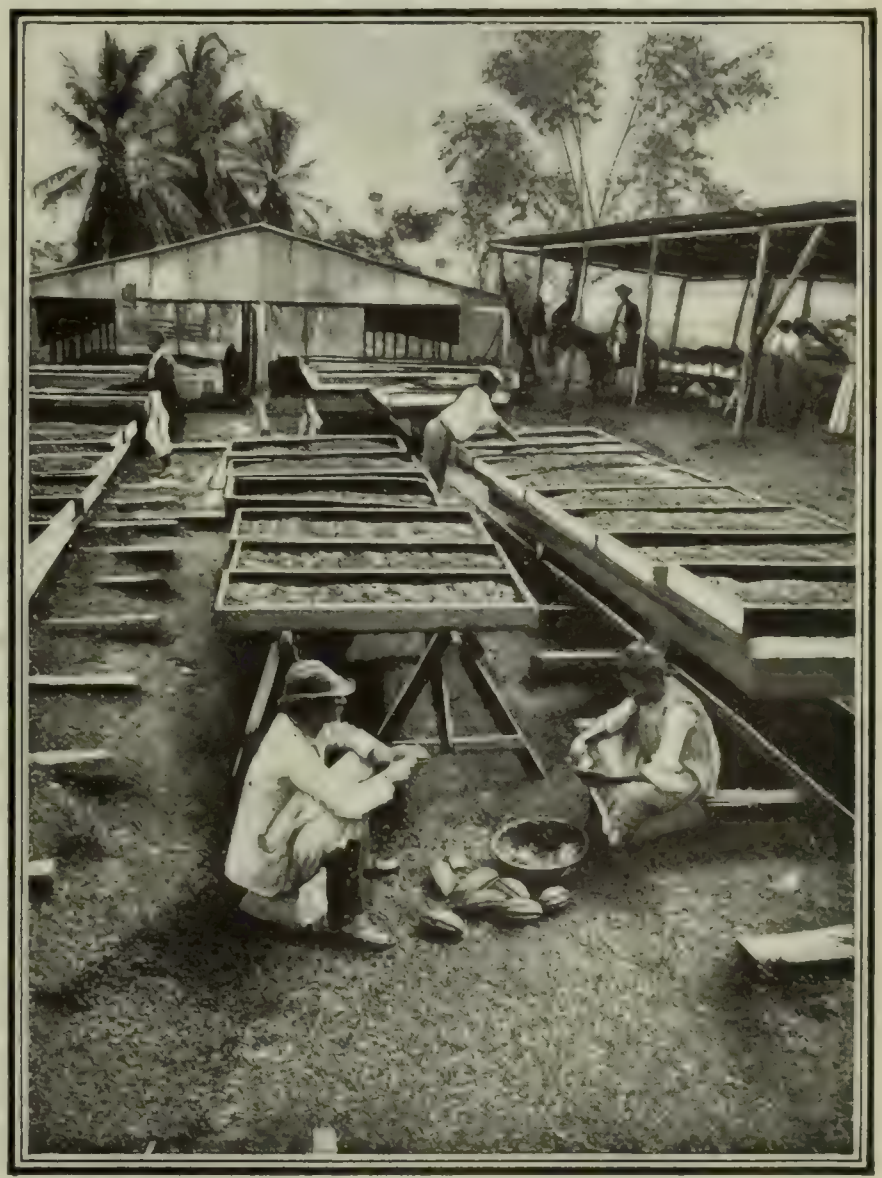
As most colleges now require ath-

letic students to attain a certain grade in mental pursuits before they can contend for athletic honors. Professor Sargent asks: "Would it not be altogether desirable for these colleges to require all scholarship men to attain a certain standard in their physical work before allowing them to compete for honors in scholarship?"

CACAO,—COMMONLY KNOWN AS COCOA.

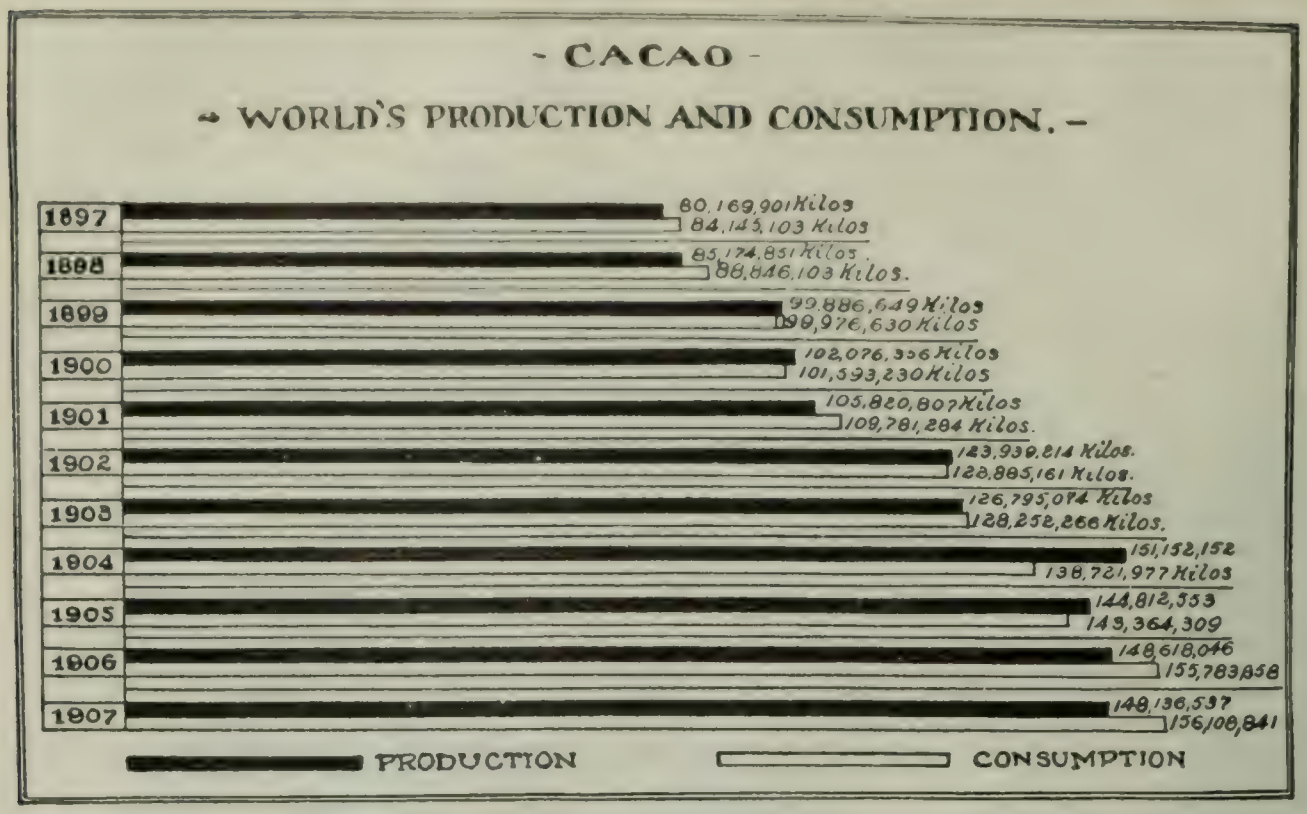
COCOA (to use the English form of the word) is one of those articles in the dietary of man concerning which a widespread ignorance prevails. Ask at random half a dozen persons, "What is cocoa?" and one may count on being told either that it is the product of the cocoanut palm, or that it comes from coca, the Peruvian plant, which is used by the Indians to sustain them on long journeys. Both answers are, of course, absolutely erroneous: for the cocoa (properly coco) palm produces only the cocoanuts, containing the so-called milk; and from coca is derived the drug cocaine so largely used in medicine, and so much abused by the unfortunate victims of the cocaine "habit." This confusion, so prevalent throughout the English-speaking world, would be avoided by using the correct word, "cacao." As pointed out by a writer in the *Bulletin of the International Bureau of the American Republics* for September, the latter term is in commercial and domestic use throughout Latin America, it is the naturalized expression in the East Indies, and it will be understood even in Japan. Incidentally, it may be mentioned that chocolate is the original cacao. The *chocolatl* of the Aztecs, "in the language of the aboriginal Mexicans it meant water, that is, a drink,—from choco, which became under the Spanish tongue cacao."

The cacao plant tree is indigenous to Mexico, Central America, and certain areas of South America, and the cultivation of it is limited to countries situated between twenty degrees north and twenty degrees south of the equator. The altitude of cacao plantations must not exceed 2600 feet; and whether the plant is grown in Mexico, Ecuador, or Ceylon, three things are essential to success,—viz., a moist atmosphere, with a temperature ranging from 70° to 90° F., good drainage, and shade.



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CURING AND DRYING COCOA BEANS.
(The beans are "shelled," like peas, from the pod.)



It is not a hardy plant, capable of fighting against odds in a tropical forest; wherever it has been found in its wild state, it has been under the protection of a taller tree that kept off both the fierce rays of the sun and the destroying blasts of the hurricane. These natural safeguards must therefore be preserved on a plantation.

Cacao trees are planted twelve to twenty-four feet apart. A small crop may be expected at the end of the fourth year; but maturity is not reached till the tenth year, after which the fruit is considered the finest.

Agricultural conditions having been successfully met, the commercial problem comes up for solution. This involves the best treatment of the bean, so that it shall produce the best chocolate and the most nutritious cocoa.

The fruit in which the seeds are buried is a melon or cucumber shaped pod, seven to ten inches long and three to four and a half inches thick. . . . The interior is divided into cells, each containing a row of seeds. . . . These are the cacao beans or the raw cacao of commerce. . . .

When the pods are ripe,—a picking usually takes place twice a year,—they are severed from the branches by skilled gatherers, who reach up to them with a long, pruned-shaped knife so arranged that it can cut off the ripe fruit without injuring the adjacent green pods. The gathered pods are left on the ground for a day or so, when they are cut open; the seeds are then taken out and carried to the place where they are cured or sweated. The older plan was to spread the seeds in shallow pans exposed to the sun; but later methods require expensive buildings. Curing consists of two steps, the first being fermentation and the second the drying.

It is a curious fact that the consumption of cacao has no relation to the source of supply or to markets in which it is sold. Unlike coffee, where the bean is the direct source of the drink, cacao has become a factory product.

When the beans arrive at the factory in Holland, Spain, or the United States, they are blended to get the best smoothness and richness of taste. This is a matter of skill and judgment, and upon the blend depends the character of any particular brand. The beans are next roasted, also a critical process; then they are crushed and the shells winnowed from the nibs. These nibs contain the real flavor. They must be ground to the fineness of flour, and at the end of this reduction process they have become a viscous liquid like molasses. This liquid condition is due to the presence in the nibs of an oily substance called "cocoa (cacao) butter." . . . The difference between chocolate and cocoa, as it is known to the trade, is due to this cacao butter. It is retained in the chocolate, but for cacao it is squeezed out of the pulverized nibs.

One fact in connection with cacao is that "its production seems in general to lag behind consumption," or, in other words, popular taste throughout the world is being educated up to chocolate and cacao faster than the supply increases. In 1897 the world's production and consumption were, respectively, 80,169,901 and 84,145,103 kilos; in 1907 they were 148,136,537 and 156,108,841 kilos. In the latter year Spain consumed 5,638,239; England, 20,159,472, and the United States, 37,526,525 kilos.

DELUSIONS CONCERNING ALCOHOL.

THE present is pre-eminently an iconoclastic age. In almost all the fields of science, theories and systems that for years have received the support of many wise and skilled men of the day have been overthrown, swept away, and relegated to the limbo of antiquities. The latest recruit to the ranks of the iconoclasts is Dr. Henry Smith Williams, who in *McClure's* for October, coolly tells us that many of the most cherished beliefs concerning alcohol are delusions, pure and simple, and have not the semblance of a foundation in fact. So sweeping are this writer's statements, so remarkable are the evidences he has accumulated, one cannot help thinking that the Prohibition party could scarcely have done better than to have added the article to its campaign literature. Regarded as an attack on the drinking habits of the community, it may be truthfully described as a series of knockdown blows. It had very generally been supposed that alcohol was a stimulant; that it promoted digestion and the heart's action, increased muscular activity, and even fortified the mind. Those who hold to such ideas have been living in a fool's paradise.

The new evidence seems to show that, in the final analysis, alcohol stimulates none of these activities; that its final effect is everywhere depressive and inhibitory (at any rate, as regards higher functions) rather than stimulative; that, in short, it is properly to be classed with the anesthetics and narcotics.

Bearing in mind the fact that more than 1,000,000,000 gallons of alcoholic beverages are consumed each year in the United States, the grounds for this new view should be of interest to every citizen.

Dr. Williams makes the general statement that, as regards digestion, experiments show that while alcohol undoubtedly does stimulate the flow of digestive fluids, it also tends to interfere with their normal action; "so that ordinarily one effect neutralizes the other." As concerns the heart, "the ultimate effect is to depress, in large doses to paralyze, that organ." Most important of all, as regards muscular activity, "the experiments show that alcohol does not increase the capacity to do muscular work, but distinctly decreases it."

Doubtless this seems at variance with many a man's observation of himself; but the explanation is found in the fact that alcohol blurs the judgment. As Voigt remarks, it gives not strength, but at most the feeling of strength. A man may think he is working faster and better under the influence of alcohol than he would otherwise do; but rigidly conducted experiments do not confirm this opinion.



DR. HENRY SMITH WILLIAMS.

On this point Dr. John J. Abel, of Johns Hopkins University, says:

Both science and the experience of life have exploded the pernicious theory that alcohol gives any persistent increase of muscular power. . . . It is well understood by all who control large bodies of men engaged in physical labor, that alcohol and effective work are incompatible.

ALCOHOL AS A BRAIN STIMULANT.

Dr. Williams cites the eminent physicist, Von Helmholtz, who declared that "the very smallest quantity of alcohol served effectively, while its influence lasted, to banish from his mind all possibility of creative effort; all capacity to solve an abstruse problem." Professor James claims that "the reason for craving alcohol is that it is an anesthetic even in moderate quantities. It obliterates a part of the field of consciousness and abolishes collateral trains of thought." In Germany many practical experiments have been made to test the basal operations of the mind. In one of these the subject sits at a table with his finger upon a telegraph key.

At a given signal,—say, a flash of light,—he releases the key. The time that elapses between signal and response . . . is called the simple or direct reaction-time. . . . Exner found that when an individual had imbibed a small quantity of alcohol his reaction-time was length-

ened, though the subject believed himself to be responding more promptly than before.

Other experiments tested more complicated mental processes. The subject would place a hand on a telegraph key, right and left. A signal would be given for one key by a red light, and for the other by a white light. After the ingestion of a glass of beer there was a marked disturbance of the mental processes. The keys would be released more rapidly than before the alcohol was taken, but the wrong key would be pressed much more frequently.

EFFECT OF A BOTTLE OF WINE A DAY.

Kürz and Kraeplin estimated that after consuming eighty grams of alcohol to a man for twelve successive days the working capacity of that individual's mind was lessened from 25 per cent. to 40 per cent. Smith found that after the same period the power to add was impaired 40 per cent., and the power to memorize was reduced 70 per cent. Forty to eighty grams of alcohol are equal to a half-bottle or a bottle of ordinary wine. Professor Aschaffenburg, referring to these experiments, points the obvious moral:

The so-called moderate drinker, who consumes his bottle of wine as a matter of course each day with his dinner,—and who doubtless would declare that he is never under the influence of liquor,—is in reality never actually sober from one week's end to another.

LOSS IN WORKING EFFICIENCY.

Professor Aschaffenburg conducted a series of experiments on four professional typesetters, extending over four days. The first and third days were observed as normal days, no alcohol being given; on the second and fourth days each worker received a little more than one ounce of Greek wine.

A comparison of the results of work on normal and on alcoholic days showed, in the case of one of the workers, no difference. But the remaining three showed greater or less retardation of work, amounting in the most pronounced case to almost 14 per cent.

Dr. Williams gives the results of many other interesting experiments, which we have not space to reproduce. He addresses the concluding paragraphs of his paper to the "moderate drinker":

I am bound to believe, in the light of what science has revealed: (1) That you are tangibly threatening the physical structures of your stomach, your liver, your kidneys, your heart, your blood-vessels, your nerves, your brain; (2) that you are unequivocally decreasing your capacity for work in any field . . . (3) that you are lowering the grade of your mind, dulling your higher esthetic sense, and taking the fine edge off your morals; (4) that you are distinctly lessening your chances of maintaining health and attaining longevity; and (5) that you may be entailing upon your descendants yet unborn a bond of incalculable misery.

THE SPANISH WOMAN AND HER INFLUENCE.

A NEW light on or rather a clearer insight into the character of the Spanish woman is given by Havelock Ellis in an article in a recent issue of *España Moderna* (Madrid). Mr. Ellis does not neglect to speak of the Spanish woman's beauty because he examines her character—on the contrary. She is the most beautiful woman in the world, he says. Not only does she possess a good figure, a wonderful complexion, fine features and brilliant eyes, but her beauty lies in her walk more than in anything else:

The Spanish woman's walk is dignified and her gestures are sober and grave as those of a priestess carrying the sacred urns . . . yet withal, she possesses the gracefulness and the agility of the feline whose body is intensely alive, and yet whose movements are harmonious and measured.

It is a mistake to imagine that the Spanish woman is carried away by what the French call "temperament." "She has very little of it. Doubtlessly she has great capacity for passion—her mysticism, fervor and tenacity prove that sufficient,—but the very intensity of her character prevents her from being emotional." The typical Spanish woman is very independent; her attributes are strength and sweetness; she is always calm and self-possessed, and in her dealings with men "her behavior, although unrestrained and pleasant, nevertheless always carries the stamp of that inner serenity and self-control." She expects and receives a great deal of attention from the opposite sex, yet rarely does this lead "to more than an exchange of compliments." The Spanish woman wants many admirers around her, for "she likes to choose, not to be chosen." This independence does not cause astonishment in Spain.

Perhaps that is why unmarried women with children are not looked down upon as they are in other countries, while there is in Spain a relative absence of that social slur which is usually cast on illegitimate children. Doubtlessly this is due to a survivance of the primitive con-

ditions of the matriarchat to which Spaniards have clung so tenaciously. The habit of legitimate children using their mother's name in preference to their father's, as is often the case, reveals the absence of any arrogant predilection for the paternal side. . . . As early as the fourth century Spanish women insisted on being allowed to retain their maiden name after marriage,—the Synode of Elvira had attempted to take away this privilege,—and the great Spanish painters, Velásquez, for instance, are known only by their mother's name. Even at the present day it is customary to use both parents' names. . . . It is interesting to observe that in a country which has always been considered the home of fanatical Catholicism, the women, ever since medieval times, have had certain liberties which those of free Protestant countries never have enjoyed and never thought of enjoying until recently.

All through Spanish history woman was held in great respect. "She was on a higher plane than man and her interests were his interests; she could devote herself to whatever pleased her most, and she often assumed responsible governmental positions,"—Concepción Arenal,—for instance, dressed as a man in order to study at the university and her husband never opposed her plans. She won fame as a poet, novelist, and as a lawyer, while she also was in charge of public affairs at Seville. Emilia Pardo Bazan, Spain's greatest writer, deplores "that men have received all the rights and women all the duties" under the present constitutional system, but this is a "transitory phase due to modern political conditions. Spain adopted the English parliamentary system to which she was not accustomed, and which she has not been able to assimilate." . . . The campaign for votes for women has met with little success,—not, however, on account of indifference to national affairs, but "male suffrage" is nothing but "an indecorous farce" existing in theory, but not in practice; so why should women wish for it? But as soon as "the political upheaval enters into a more vital phase women certainly take a natural and inevitable part in the national life for which they are so admirably qualified."

In spite of the church and its conservatism, "Spanish women have very advanced political and also religious ideals, as Perez Galdos showed in *Electra*. To take Mérimée's Carmen to be the portrait of a real Spanish girl is absurd. Doubtlessly Carmen has certain traits in common with the gypsies, but neither the ordinary working girl nor the *cigarrera* have any resemblance with the famous heroine. They are sensible and hard-working, and if married, dutiful wives and mothers.



SEÑORA EMILIA PARDO BAZAN.
(Novelist and reformer, "the most eminent and typical of living Spanish women.")

The writer of the article in question records the following episode, which he considers typical:

A few years ago in Barcelona a succession of strikes caused the authorities to apply the martial law. Many collisions occurred between the people and the troops . . . and at one of these . . . the soldiers were gradually beating the populace away. Suddenly a young working girl, sprung from no one knew where, appeared at the head of the rebels. . . . She cheered the discouraged and organized the others, called the people together and showed them how to act, and then she disappeared again without any one knowing whence she came or who she was.

Spanish women receive a most rudimentary education, and many do not know how to read or write. "But there is perhaps no country in the world where one can more clearly see of what slight importance this really is." The woman of the lower classes who scarcely knows how to sign her name often shows more tact and understanding than many of her more educated sisters in other countries. Higher education is, however, open to women in Spain, and those who feel the desire to study can do so as freely as men. Comparatively few avail themselves of this opportunity, however; the semi-oriental traditions still have a certain effect on social conventions, and it takes an unusual amount of courage to brave public opinion.

CO-OPERATIVE TRADING IN ENGLAND.

FROM a meager capital of a few dollars, accumulated from small weekly payments by twenty-eight weavers in a small manufacturing town in the north of England, who formed themselves into a society to supply their families with the necessities of life, to 2262 co-operative retail organizations, with 9,000,000 customers, and an annual turnover of $750,000,000, such is the development of co-operative trading in the British Isles, set forth in *System* for October by Mr. J. W. Stannard. The principles of co-operation had been expounded to the masses by Robert Owen as long ago as the beginning of the eighteenth century, but it was not until 1844 that the real foundation of the movement was laid in England. In that year the British workman was experiencing "bad times." The extensive introduction of machinery had displaced manual labor to a considerable extent, and in consequence there was much unemployment. Owing to the operation of the corn laws, the price of bread was exceptionally high. It occurred to some weavers of Rochdale that now was the time to put into practice Owen's plan of abolishing "profit upon cost."

A meeting was held, and it was decided to form a society for the purchase and distribution of goods for the benefit of the members, returning to each a portion of the "profit upon cost" included in the retail selling price. . . . As the *Rochdale Equitable Pioneers,* the society began to lay the foundation of that imposing structure which Lord Rosebery has so aptly named "a state within a state."

The article under review, which is the first of a promised series, is mainly devoted to the operations of the Royal Arsenal Co-operative Society, of Woolwich, a suburb of London. As is generally known, at Woolwich is located England's great arsenal, which employs from 8000 to 16,000 men, according to whether her army is on a peace or a war footing. As a result of workshop discussions among these men, a meeting was held at Woolwich early in November, 1868.

They decided to form a co-operative society on the lines of the pioneer society at Rochdale, and organized the Royal Arsenal Supply Association, now the Royal Arsenal Co-operative Society. The amount of each member's share was limited to $5. Twenty members paid subscriptions, which totaled less than $25. Further subscriptions were received the following week, which brought this small capital up to nearly $40, and on this a start was made. The first purchase was a chest of tea, and was followed by purchases of butter and sugar. A small workshop in the house of the secretary was the first store. The bench, covered with American cloth, served as a coun-



CROWD WAITING FOR THE OPENING OF THE NEW CO-OPERATIVE STORES AT PLUMSTEAD COMMON.
(This store, like all society branches, is built with a land allowance for extension at a later date.)



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW LOOKING NORTH FROM BOSTALL HEATH, OF THE MAGNIFICENT BUILDING ESTATE OWNED BY THE WOOLWICH SOCIETY.

(It is connected with London by the County Council tramways. The River Thames is visible in the distance.)

ter, and the bed of the lathe as a desk for the secretary and treasurer. . . . The "store" opened for business on Saturday evenings only.

On July 15, 1873, the increase of business had rendered necessary the engagement of a regular salesman, and goods were sold in a regular store, which was opened daily.

A remarkable fact concerning the early years of the society is, that not until 1878,—ten years after its foundation,—were any salaries paid to officials. By this time the sales had reached the total of $125,000.

Up to this time the whole of the secretarial work had been performed by one of the members who was an employee at the arsenal, and who occupied his evenings with the work of the society. At this time, however, he was persuaded to devote his whole time to the society's work. As the business grew, new departments were added: in 1876 a bakery was opened; two years later the sum of $500 was voted for the establishment of a library and reading room for the use of members; tailoring and shoemaking departments were added in 1879; a butchery department in 1884; a furnishing department in 1885; a farm and coal department in 1886; milk, fruit and vegetable departments in 1887; a confectionery department in 1893; and a works department, which has since erected all the society's houses and new stores, in 1896. . . . At the bakery an average of 86,000 loaves a week are made, besides cakes and pastry for the society's stores.

The society does not confine itself to selling groceries, meats, etc. It has entered the real-estate field. In 1886 a farm of fifty acres was bought, and ten years later 150 acres were added thereto. On this land 680 modern residences,—all of them sold to members,—have been erected. Members are enabled to buy homes on easy payments; and as the society has acquired powers to engage in the insurance business, all the residences of the members (their furniture also) are insured by the management.

The ultimate control of the retail society is lodged in the members, who elect a managing committee of nine directors. Naturally the great competitors of the society are the large dry-goods stores, to compete with which it is necessary for the society to maintain the lowest possible prices and to insure delivery facilities as well. Especial care is used to make the society's stores as attractive as possible. In one of the large branches expensively fitted barber shops have been added for men and women, respectively.

The minimum number of shares allowed to each member is two. Exceptional inducements are offered to prospective shareholders.

Initial deposits of only 12 cents on each $5 share are required, together with 12 cents for the member's card. Thus membership can be obtained for an initial payment of about 36 cents; and the bonus due at the end of each quarter can be utilized for the paying of the balance due on shares.

This bonus varies according to the district in which the society is located. Where the local competition is slight, and good prices can be maintained, as much as 20 per cent. on every $5 worth of goods purchased is paid quarterly. In other districts as low as 6 per cent. is paid.

At the close of 1907 the society had a total membership of 26,935, a capital of $1,500,000, and sales exceeding $2,500,000.

In illustration of the benefits of the retail society, the *System* writer takes the case of a member of the Woolwich concern who spends an average of $2.50 weekly at the society's stores.

Supposing that no further payments (beyond the 25 cents for membership and two $5 shares) were made by the member, and the bonus on his purchases of $2.50 worth of goods per week were allowed to accumulate, he would, in nine years' time, have to his credit more than $100; and in twenty years' time would practically have $500 to his credit, which he could withdraw at any time, and this without the payment of any more than the 25 cents necessary to secure his shares.

Is it any wonder that co-operative trading is a success?

CHURCH AND STATE IN THE PHILIPPINES.

IT is little more than ten years since the United States land and sea forces, co-operating, bombarded and took Manila. To-day it is possible to write of an independent Philippine church and also of the work done by the first Filipino Assembly. Authoritative information concerning the former was first furnished to western readers by Señor W. E. Retana, in his article "La Iglesia Filipina Independente," which appeared in *Por Estos Mundos* for April last, and a review of which is contributed by Mr. R. T. House to the *Open Court* for October.

It was in political rather than religious exigences that the Philippine church had its origin. As in other lands, the Spaniard in his *rôle* of conqueror, asserted his superiority over the Filipino in religious as well as civil matters. Consequently, from the earliest days of a regularly organized church in the islands the regular clergy were composed of Spaniards, the native priests, in most cases, holding only subordinate positions, and being, as was to be expected, mortally jealous of their ecclesiastical superiors.



BISHOP GREGORIO AGLÍPAY, OF THE PHILIPPINE CHURCH.

The native clergy, naturally the most enlightened class in the islands, headed the movement which resulted in the constitution of 1812, and took such an active part in the elections held in accordance with that instrument that the higher church officials leagued against them, and throughout the larger part of the nineteenth century not a Filipino held an important church charge.

Appeals were made to the church in Europe, but these were ignored. Revolutions at home likewise proved ineffectual. In 1898, however, when the Treaty of Paris awarded the archipelago to the United States, the native clergy at once saw the opportunity of securing religious freedom as well as political separation. This crisis brought to the front the then Coadjutor Bishop Gregorio Aglípay y Labayen, whose history is a veritable romance.

Aglípay was born in the Province of Ilocos Norte, Island of Luzon, on May 7, 1860. The son of a poor agriculturist, a somewhat strange accident caused him to leave the plow and take up the text-book, at the age of seventeen. He was engaged in tobacco-culture, and the Spanish Government was encouraging agriculture by forcing every planter to set out 5000 plants yearly. The year in question was a very dry one, and the young farmer decided that he would not waste energy and plants when the prospects were so unfavorable. The magistrate threw him into prison, and when he was released he shook the dust of the tobacco-field off his feet forever. He entered a Dominican school in Manila, working as a servant in exchange for his board and clothing, but progressed so rapidly that he was soon given a post as student teacher, which enabled him to secure a very thorough education. In 1889 he was ordained a priest in Manila, and for eight years he served quietly in one parish

after another till the governor of his province called him unexpectedly on a secular mission.

Aglípay was sent to Makabulos, who had formed a revolutionary junta in Tárlac, with a commission to offer him the captaincy of a body of volunteers if he would turn his energies against the Americans. The envoy succeeded in his mission, but his dealings with a revolutionist led to a charge of disloyalty; and although the charge was not pressed, the young priest secluded himself in Manila. Later, Aglípay was one of the ambassadors sent by the Spanish governor-general to the rebels to offer them certain concessions; but the train conveying him was captured and he himself was made prisoner. He was afterward allowed to return to Manila. When Aguinaldo, after his retirement, returned to the islands and resumed his activities, Aglípay, an old friend and admirer of his, received from him the title of "vicar-general of the archipelago." Archbishop Nozaleda promptly excommunicated him; and, his ecclesiastical functions being for the time ended, he became from 1900 to 1903 a thoroughly secular guerilla leader. At the time of Aguinaldo's capture Aglípay surrendered also, and accompanied and aided Governor Taft in his "circuit of conciliation." In 1901 Don Isabelo de los Reyes, on his return from imprisonment in Spain, announced that, after studying conditions both in Spain and in the islands, he was conviced that the Philippine church "could no longer thrive as a part of the European body." A new organization was established; Aglípay was made chief bishop, and has been the head of the church ever since.

Reyes is described by the *Open Court* writer as "the most interesting character among the leaders of the new movement." He holds the only honorary bishopric in the new organization.

A resident of Manila from his early youth, and a newspaper man by profession, he became a student of the island folklore. Ethnologist, linguist, and historian, he is a member of learned societies in Paris, Vienna, and elsewhere, and a very vigorous refutation of the assertion that nothing can be made of the Filipino. Founder of the *Ilocano,* the first bilingual paper in the province, he preached the cause of his countrymen so boldly that the Spanish governor deemed it necessary to shut him up in the Manila prison. Later he was confined for more than a year in Castle Montjuich at Barcelona. On his release he established in Madrid the journal *Filipinas ante Europa.* In 1901, after traveling through Europe, he returned to his native islands, and was promptly thrown into prison by the American Government. On his release he became the chief agent in the establishment of the new church. He and his Spanish wife now reside in Barcelona, where he turns out fifteen to twenty magazine articles a month.

The young Philippine church has evolved an extremely original combination,—namely, "the ritual and church government of the Roman Catholic Church in which it took its origin, and the theology of Matthew Arnold." It preaches "the common holding of property, love that recognizes no boundaries, and freedom of science," and admits no dogmas. Both priests and deaconesses may marry, "although, if it be possible, it is preferable that they remain free from the cares of a family in order that they may give themselves entirely to the service of the Lord." Divorce is not permitted under any circumstances. Of all the doctrines and practices of the new church, however, the most distinctive is that proclaimed by its head: "And above all, members are absolutely forbidden to attack other churches for any reason whatever." The church government is in the hands of thirty bishops and nearly 400 priests, several of which latter are foreigners, and four or five are Spaniards. The official language of the new church is Spanish.

THE FIRST ELECTIVE ASSEMBLY.

On June 19 last the new Philippine Legislature, the first elective assembly to be instituted among a Malay people, adjourned, after having held inaugural, regular, and special sessions; and an interesting account of the legislation actually accomplished is given in the *North American Review* by Charles Sumner Lobingier, Judge of the Court of First Instance, Manila, who in 1907 was chairman of the commission appointed to codify the laws of the Philippine Islands.

It cannot fail to be gratifying to the American people to learn that the very first official act of the Assembly, after its organization, was the passage of a resolution to the effect that:

> The people of the Philippine Islands fully recognize in the action taken by the Government of the United States in creating the said Assembly a proof of its confidence in said people, as well as a continuation of the democratic traditions of the United States.

The resolution also conveyed to the President of the United States, and through him to the Congress and the people of the United States, their profound sentiments of gratitude and high appreciation of the signal concession made to the people of the islands of par-

ticipating directly in the making of the laws which shall govern them.

Political students who have followed the course of events in the Philippines will remember that the Philippine Commission reported in 1900 that it was assured, both by friendly Filipinos and by insurgent representatives, that the islanders were willing to bear almost any burden of taxation which should provide a good system of public-school education. How fully this assurance has been justified is seen in the fact that of the seventy-three laws approved by the Assembly no less than nine,—one-eighth of the whole,—related to popular education.

The very first act was one appropriating $500,000 for the construction of schoolhouses in the *barrios,* or rural districts. This was followed by acts appropriating $37,500 for the salaries of teachers in such schools, $25,000 for training, at the Insular Schools of Manila, teachers to be selected from different municipalities throughout the archipelago, and the general appropriation bill which allowed $1,650,000 for the Bureau of Education . . . . and $72,500 for the Government Medical School.

Besides the foregoing, provision was made for the conveyance to provinces and municipalities of public lands and the buildings thereon for public-school purposes, for "civico-educational lectures" in the *barrios,* and for the establishment of a Philippine public library, which will have charge of the collection and preservation of historical documents.

To crown this branch of its work, the Assembly passed, practically without amendment, a bill providing for the foundation of a "University of the Philippines." This measure, modeled on the charters of our State universities, may well be regarded as the most important work of the first Philippine Legislature. It ought to mark a new era in American educational effort in the Far East, and ultimately make Manila a center of university influence for the spread of higher learning and Anglo-Saxon culture throughout Asia.

Outside the field of education, the acts passed by the Assembly included one for systems of irrigation, for which $375,000 was appropriated, and a new Employers' Liability law. The latter is framed along the lines of similar laws in the United States, but is somewhat more moderate, the limit of recovery, even in case of death, being fixed at $1250. The "fellow-servant's" rule, it should be mentioned, has never applied in the Philippines.

The Philippine Legislature consists of an Upper House (the United States Philippine Commission), which shares its powers with an elective Assembly of eighty members. There have been those who anticipated that the first Filipino Assembly would be "a radical, if not a revolutionary, body, devoting its time and efforts to plots and protests against the constituted authorities." Results have shown them to have been false prophets, for not only has there been an amicable cooperation with those authorities, but there has also been shown "a genuine appreciation of American achievements in the Philippines and a desire to continue the work so well begun." Few measures were introduced into the Assembly whose effect would have been to overturn any important feature of the settled American policy. Judge Lobingier considers that

there could scarcely be a higher tribute to the work and wisdom of those patriotic men who, in the opening years of the present century, first planted American institutions in the Orient, or a clearer demonstration that, in their efforts toward the uplift of the Philippines, the American people have been writing one of the most creditable chapters in their history.

POLITICAL PARTIES IN CHINA.

"THE awakening of China" has become quite a stock phrase of late; yet it is doubtful if five out of six who use it realize what it implies. Political parties in the Flowery Kingdom, forsooth!—that *imperium in imperio,* where the only political party was known to be an all-powerful dowager empress, whose word was law, and who tolerated no obstacle in the way of her autocratic schemes and decrees. If any evidence were needed of the marvelously rapid march of events in the Middle Kingdom, it is furnished by the appearance in an English magazine (the *Westminster Review*) of an article under the above caption, by "A Chinese Student." After giving an interesting historical résumé, this writer goes on to say that under the great Manchu emperor, K'ien Lung, the formation of any party of a political character was thenceforth forbidden under the penalty of high treason; and that at the beginning of the nineteenth century no trace of party politics was to be found in the empire.

After the Tai-ping rebellion the autocratic power was weakened somewhat "by the influence of those so-called imperial generals, of whom Li Hung Chang was one." It was after the Chino-Japanese war "that a stir was made in the thinking class, and the ex-leader of the Constitutional Monarchists, Kang Yu Wei, made his first attempt to publicly organize a party." Kang Yu Wei came into power in 1898, and took part in the short-lived *coup d'état* of that year, as a consequence of which he was sent into exile. When interviewed by Lord Charles Beresford at Hong-Kong he asserted that the objects of the Reform party were to keep China an empire, and to support the dynasty. He added that at that moment the party was "completely crushed, but not killed."

After the Boxer trouble the party quickly revived in the official world, but, being very timid, they disclaimed Kang Yu Wei as leader, and chose Yuan Shih Kai in his stead.

Of the three existing political parties, that of the Constitutional Monarchists is perhaps the most powerful, as it consists chiefly of the aristocrats who naturally have the maximum of means to carry their views into execution. They are gradually gaining ground in the highest quarters, in spite of the reactionary element in the government.

The next important party is the Revolutionary, or Republican, whose acknowledged leader is Dr Sun Yat Sen.

Ten years ago his followers were mostly wild adventurers from different quarters, and it is curious to note that not a few Japanese were among their number. . . . In those days Dr. Sun had but a handful of men and not much money. . . . The two years, 1898-1900, saw the Chinese Government in a whirlpool, when the Revolutionary party quickly gathered strength. In 1900 Tang Chai Chang, one of Kang Yu Wei's early followers, attempted a rising at Hankow, the plot was discovered, and the leaders were executed. . . . During the last seven years the party has steadily gained strength—men of great ability and position having joined it willingly.

Dr. Sun has thus defined the program of the Revolutionary party:

The foremost object of our party is to insure entire political freedom by overthrowing the present government, and establishing a republic in its stead. The pernicious tradition of the official world and the evil influence of the court can only be swept away by a revolution. . . . Once the government is overthrown, reorganization would be a comparatively easy task. All the foolish restrictions of trade would be removed, and the country would soon recover from its economic distress.

The third political party consists of the Constitutional Democrats. These are of opinion "that the efficiency of a government depends not so much on its form as on its foundation and background,—the society, which 'is a growth, and not a manufacture.' It is absurd to think that we can create or transform our society by merely changing the form of our government. . . . Side by side with the work of social transformation we will struggle for individual freedom and judicial independence." In this respect the three parties are at one.

They also agree on two other vitally important questions, viz.,—the anti-Manchu campaign,—directed against the existing political inequality and not as a mission of race hatred,—and the policy of "China for the Chinese."

The expression, "China for the Chinese," has often been misrepresented as the sign of the old "closed door" policy. . . . I do not know what definition has been given for the expression, "Australia for the Australians," or "Canada for the Canadians," but "China for the Chinese" means that the Chinese people will maintain their national rights and interest against any one from within or without who attempts to endanger them. We are not anti-foreign in any way; on the contrary, we want to promote every possible good-feeling among our friends, on whose action much of our future depends.

Political freedom is the common object of all three parties; they differ only as to the method of obtaining it.

The Constitutional Monarchists wish to have a constitution under the present régime, and they aim at the centralization of the government; the Revolutionary party, on the other hand, maintains that a revolution is absolutely necessary in order to establish a government on truly modern lines; whilst the Constitutional Democrats differ from them both in opposing the policy of centralization, and disapproving the violent method of a revolution.

We have only space to quote the concluding paragraph of the article:

Of an ultimate victory we have not the slightest doubt. . . . Neither the brutal force acquired by Europe through modern science, nor the arbitrary power given to the tyrants by Oriental tradition, can stop our progress. If the West wishes sincerely to take an honorable part in our stupendous task, there are only two things we ask: Firstly, whatever be the struggle between the people and the government, or between the people themselves, we ask Europe to maintain a strictly neutral attitude. We do not want help, much less interference. . . . Secondly, we ask Europe to afford us facilities for education,—education in the widest sense of the word. Not only do we ask you to open the doors of your colleges and universities to our students, but also to give us opportunities for social inter-

course, so that any national prejudice in our young generation may be entirely removed through their personal experience. Treat us as one of yourselves, and you will find in us no disappointment. Remember that Orientals are human beings. The difference between the East and the West is essentially of *degree* rather than *kind;* and we do not see why we should not achieve what every European nation has done before us. We will *fight* and *hope.*

GOVERNMENT OWNERSHIP OF THE TELEPHONE IN WESTERN CANADA.

THE spirit of public ownership is rampant in the great territory that lies between the Great Lakes and the Rocky Mountains. There is a sense of proprietorship in the Westerner which forms a part of his very nature. No sooner does he acquire a small personal holding on the prairie than he proceeds to take a shareholder's interest in every legitimate Western enterprise. Then, again, politicians have educated the people to the advantages of public ownership of utilities; and with this problem, writes Mr. George Fisher Chapman, in the *Canadian Magazine,* the brightest minds in Canada are now wrestling. In Manitoba, the acquisition by the government of the control of certain railroads has resulted in a saving of more than $2,000,000 annually to the people, and this amount is increasing.

Manitoba has made a second venture in the field of government ownership,—the acquirement of the Bell telephone system. In 1906 the government decided to undertake the construction of telephone lines throughout the province; and a plebiscite was taken in the municipalities on the question, "Shall this municipality own and operate its own telephones?" The total votes cast were 13,688 for and 11,569 against. The government, interpreting the voice of the people as favorable to the project, opened negotiations with the Bell company for the purchase of its system. The Bell people rejected the offer made to them, and the government then decided to go ahead and compete with that company. In the spring of 1907 active operations were begun, conduits were laid all through Winnipeg, and a large exchange building was commenced. By last fall $200,000 had been expended on the work, and the Bell company then awoke to the fact that "they were face to face with a real live rival, and one that could not be beaten." They had fought, and fought successfully, independent companies and corporations; but here they found themselves with all the wealth of a state against them. Deeming discretion the better part of valor, the company approached the Manitoba government with the view of making the best terms possible; and ultimately Mr. C. F. Sise, president of the Bell Telephone Company of Canada, sold to the government all his plant and rights for the sum of $3,000,000. In payment, Manitoba government bonds, payable in forty years, and bearing interest at 4 per cent., were accepted.

It was evident that the only safe method for the operation of the new system was by the appointment of an impartial commission.

The government avoided the political field, and chose the three chief officials of the Bell Company at Manitoba as commissioners,—viz., F. C. Paterson, chairman; W. H. Hayes, engineer; and H. J. Horan, as third member of the commission. By agreement with Mr. Sise, all the employees of the Bell system were to be retained in office for at least one year, so that there was no change in the service anywhere. The commission was given full charge of the operation of the plant, the management of employees and agents, and also of the big question of rates. The government retained supervisory powers, and also the work of constructing rural and long distance lines.

Up to the present the benefits resulting from the purchase of the Bell system are not apparent. There were 14,195 telephones in the province, and these were purchased from the company at $232 each,—a very high price.

The only change in rates has been an upward one, as nurses' and doctors' telephones have been raised from $40 a year to the regular business rate of $50. The government has an immense problem before them in the operation of the telephone system; and if the rates cannot be lowered without a loss, then the experiment will be pronounced a failure,—for the service will be the same.

In Alberta, the government purchased the Bell system for $675,000, and 2700 telephones were acquired at a cost of $260 per instrument.

In Saskatchewan, the government is building a system of its own throughout the province; but no doubt the near future will see the Bell plant transferred to the government here also.

LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

HOW TO GO AFTER INCREASE IN VALUE.

A HARDWARE dealer wrote a letter to the publishers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. It is a fair composite of a good many received this fall, showing the keen interest in promising bonds, and also the main fallacy, concerning them, entertained by business men all over the country.

"I save $8000 to $9000 a year that I don't want to put back in the business. I want you to give me a regular plan to invest this money in bonds that will probably increase in value. Of course, they must pay 5 per cent. or 6 per cent., and must be salable in a hurry in case I should need the money. But remember that *I don't want to speculate.*"

This writer was embarking on a perfectly straight course, but was sailing under false colors, if he really expected to come through "without speculating."

BONDS THAT MAY RISE.

Many bonds that have not yet got their growth may be picked out as promising. They show a good chance of rising ten or fifteen points within the next year or two. Most of the "high grade" issues have had such a rise during the year past. History shows that the "second-grade" bonds are next to follow suit after a panic.

This means that the merchant's $8500 could buy ten bonds that might be worth $9500 to $10,000 before very long. The sort of thing to buy for this purpose is sketched in last month's *Harper's* and *Pearson's.*

But before reviewing these articles, one does well to dwell on the fallacy in the letter above. It is shared by many business men. It is the belief that the bond trade is somehow different from any other trade.

BONDS AS A "SIDE LINE."

By taking on ten 4 per cent. bonds at $8500, the hardware merchant simply adds a "side line" to his nails and bolts and files. It is a superior line to the rest, in that it pays him $400 a year for its keep. And money can be borrowed on it, even at banks where the merchant has no account. In fact, it makes him mighty independent, and thus helps his credit at the bank from which he is accustomed to borrow. Thus it acts as a sort of insurance to all the rest of his stock.

Nevertheless, these bonds bought for an "increase of value" become objects of trade. And their owner must assume the ordinary risks of trade. This is speculation.

Only haste and carelessness can blink the fact. When it is faced, when the risks are intelligently met, divided among various enterprises in different parts of the country, and supervised by an experienced banker, then the speculation becomes a sensible one, and deserves the name of a "business man's investment."

Indeed, if there is one feature of speculation as distinguished from investment, it is this same "promise of increase of value." The purest form of investment, the note, whether secured by mortgage or not, offers the purchaser *his money back,* no more, no less, with stated interest. With bonds and stocks, widely sold and subject to fluctuations, enters the element of trade.

Bankers who know their business best are most apt to make this point clear in advance. So the buyer of "business men's bonds" should find financial advisers who do not conceal risks, but anticipate them and insure against them. Such are the firms that point to ledgers full of the accounts of satisfied customers.

RULES FOR SELECTION.

The science of picking out bonds for growth in value is summed up by Richard Fitzgerald in *Pearson's.* "Seek direct obligations of railroads of junior rank," he writes. "Many such railroad lines occupy important strategic geographical positions, the securities of which promise to increase in value year after year with the increase of population and business of the company, through connections with other railroads."

The hazard here is in your forecast, but given ample values underlying your selection, you have little to fear in the event of damage to crops or temporary mismanagement of the property, and can with confidence abide the outcome.

In the past few years the greatest increase in population has been in the Southeast, the extreme Northwest and in the Southwest, due in the latter instance to irrigation and the occupation by settlers of Indian lands. The necessities of these new inhabitants and the cultivation of this virgin soil promises the railroads increased income.

Belief in American prosperity will take the investor past some of the doubtful places. Once upon a time, even the Pennsylvania and New York Central bonds seemed speculative to English financiers. Now our national prosperity has put most of these in the "trustee" class. "So in time," writes Mr. Fitzgerald, "will railroads, now of the second class, through absorption by greater systems, cultivation of an increased acreage or the discovery of some natural output in their territory, advance to the present rank of our leading corporations."

Pick out first-mortgage issues of struggling grange roads, and study them. Many railroads have divisional first-mortgage bonds of as great value as was originally their main line securities Select railroad equipment bonds secured by first mortgage, and first-mortgage railroad terminal issues. The earning capacity of such property is apparent, its importance as a component part of the whole of which it serves so vital a necessity is equally apparent.

Many unpopular securities are safe and sound, and full of promise of great appreciation. The patient study that leads to an investment of your money in such bonds will fully reward you.

BONDS THAT HAVE REACHED THE TOP.

To understand what a "promising" bond implies, it helps to look into one that has already fulfilled its promise. Such are the West Shore 4s of 2361. In *Harper's*, Howard Schench Mott has this to say about them:

There is only the one issue of bonds on the West Shore, and it is at the rate of about $104,000 per mile, but the road is double-tracked, has exceedingly valuable terminals, heavy through and local traffic, and, last, but not least, the New York Central & Hudson River Railroad Company owns all of its $10,000,000 of capital stock, and leases the road for 475 years from January 1, 1886, at a rental of the interest on its bonds.

Furthermore, the New York Central guarantees the bonds as to both principal and interest by endorsement on each bond. The bonds have a good but very inactive Stock Exchange market. They probably have *already reached a maximum of investment value*, and offer no inducement to the man looking for a good return on his money and chance of appreciation in value.

BONDS WITH LARGE POSSIBILITIES.

Evidently our friend in the hardware business would not be interested in such limited bonds. He wants to begin farther down and work up. Here is some risk; but, as Mr. Mott writes, "if there were not some uncertainty about the future, there never would be a chance of appreciation in value."

Several bonds issued by the "Katy" are popular with business men. Mr. Mott tells why:

The Missouri, Kansas & Texas Railway traverses a rich agricultural country from St. Louis, Missouri, south to Galveston, Texas. Its earnings depend much upon the weather during the crop season; for good crops mean not only a large traffic in grain and cotton, but prosperity for the farmers in the territory it traverses, and *vice versa*. The section of the country through which it runs is peculiarly subject to floods and droughts during the summer months, by which the crops are at times endangered; nevertheless, the agricultural prosperity of the section grows each year, and a considerable portion of the country remains undeveloped. The earnings of the company evidently have large possibilities of expansion.

The first mortgage bonds are secured by a first mortgage at the rate of about $27,000 per mile and by securities representing the control of several subsidiary companies in the State of Texas. At the present time these bonds sell slightly under par, and are unquestionably a safe investment, but the yield is only slightly over 4 per cent.

Consequently the business man will direct his attention to the second-mortgage bonds covering substantially the same property as the first-mortgage bonds, but selling materially below par, and therefore yielding a higher rate of income on the investment. Or, if he looks for still larger chance of appreciation in value, he will direct his attention to a study of bonds which have liens junior to both the first and second mortgage bonds, namely the refunding 4-per-cent. bonds due in 2004, or the general mortgage 4½-per-cent. bonds due in 1936, both of which sell at prices lower than the second-mortgage bonds and yield higher returns.

The facts stated with regard to the Missouri, Kansas & Texas territory, taken in connection with an increasing stability of earnings as traffic becomes diversified, would constitute very important elements of value for all of the securities of any railroad company. Practically all of the bonds of the Missouri, Kansas & Texas Company enjoy a more active market than do those of the West Shore. Even the divisional bonds of the Missouri, Kansas & Texas, which may be inactive on the Stock Exchange, always find a good market among dealers in bonds. For any one having in mind the possible necessity of reconverting his investment into cash, the Missouri, Kansas & Texas issues better meet his needs.

The point first insisted upon at the beginning of this review must be returned to. Bonds that have not got their growth yet should not be bought by those dependent on their income,—and not even a business man unless he realizes what he is about, and is willing to take the trouble to safeguard himself in advance.

The art of wise investment (writes Mr. Mott) is quite as much of a science as is the determination of shop costs in a manufacturing concern. The same principles that are used to determine the "state of the art" in other fields will, however, be found effective in the field of invesment; and with the application of such principles to investment, there is no reason why the business man should not meet with a large measure of success.

"THE WORST MISTAKE AN INVESTOR CAN MAKE."

"PERHAPS the worst mistake that an investor can make," writes the financial editor of the *World's Work*, "is to become possessed of the idea that he should back a new invention. Just at the moment it is airships. A little while ago it was talking-machines. Thousands of people in all the civilized countries of the world lost much money trying to reap fortunes from the much-heralded field of wireless telegraphy. It would be quite impossible to estimate the amount of money that has been thrown away by usually sane and sensible people during the past ten years in an effort to make a substitute for the cable and the telegraph and the telephone."

The experience of the publishers of the REVIEW is a strong confirmation of these statements. Ministers, maiden ladies, workingmen, college professors, physicians,—all the classes least in touch with financial affairs,—are constantly sending in circulars offering the stock of new inventions. Some want to know whether to put their money in; others, how to get it out. The latter can rarely be helped; the former can, and by sending just the sort of information that the article above quoted goes on to give:

A little company, floating a patent that rivals a patent held by some large concern, is in a position almost hopeless. A telephone attachment, for instance, or a telephone improvement, if you will, can have little or no market unless it is taken up either by the big manufacturing concerns that supply the American Telephone & Telegraph, or by the other companies that make telephone material and sell or lease it to the many independent telephone companies. A mechanism for turning swing bridges can have little value to its inventor or to any one else unless it be taken up by some firm or company that builds swing bridges.

How is the outsider to determine the value of a new invention? Unless he retains just the right kind of experts, he cannot get technical and impartial information as to its merits, the market for it, the possibility of its being bought out by a big corporation already in the field.

THE ONLY KNOWN FACT.

The only known fact with one of these publicly offered stocks is that these corporations have *not* so far gone into it. This means one of two things: either that the patent has no value, or that the big fellows are merely waiting for the little ones to lose their money experimenting, before buying the patents cheap. Usually the former is the case.

Is stock thus bought in the dark an investment? No. Speculation? No. A gamble? In most cases, it is not even that. Gambling implies fair mathematical chances. Here, the dealer holds all the cards all the time. And he is seldom known favorably, or at all, in the financial centers.

The name of the inventor means nothing. Mr. Marconi was in no wise responsible for the swindles that were perpetrated in the wireless telegraph field during the past five years. One must find out the names of the men who are selling stocks or bonds; who they are; what other companies they have formed; how men fared in these; how much personal risk they have in this venture; how their statements are regarded in trade circles and in financial circles.

Little short of an investigation by private detectives hired at so much a day will get the investor what he needs of the record of the promoters.

The open fact, which is final with sensible men who have learned it, is that famous American bankers strictly avoid the underwriting of new inventions. They stick to the cities, railroads, and manufactures that are already successful, using methods that have already made good. These are the bankers who have demonstrated that they are fitted to handle other people's money. Such fitness is not taken for granted by people who have seen the inside of new-invention promoting.

THE NEW BOOKS.

A STRONG, HUMAN, AMERICAN LOVE STORY.

IT is not often, we think, that a novelist makes such rapid and even improvement in the technique of his craft as is shown by Mr. John Fox, Jr., in his latest story, "The Trail of the Lonesome Pine."* All his stories have been characterized by dramatic force and deep feeling. None of them, however, we venture to assert, shows, in addition to this emotional intensity, such a power of description and such a grasp of the essentials of good story-telling. In "The Trail of the Lonesome Pine" Mr. Fox has exceeded even the strength and beauty of "The Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come."

It is an intensely national note which is struck in this novel in scene, characters, and treatment. The hero is the type of American life of which we are most proud, the vigorous, brave, energetic man of flesh and blood, who "does things." The other side of the picture, that of the feuds and vendettas of the Kentucky mountains, is a side of which we are not proud and of which we are wont to speak apologetically. Mr. Fox has painted both these pictures, not with the unvarying white or black hues of our conventional heroes and villains, but with the unevenness and inconsistency of real human temperament.

The story, briefly told, is that of the growth and development of a particularly beautiful and attractive mountain girl, "June" Tolliver, a fascinating and picturesque heroine who finally added the training of the cities to the charm of the mountains. The development of her mind and love for "John Hale, Engineer," the hero, a human man of triumphs and mistakes, furnishes the thread around which is woven the stirring tale of feuds and fighting in the Kentucky mountains and the arousing of a mountain village to a realization of law and order through the pluck and determination of the young engineer. The lonesome pine,—"giving place with somber dignity to the passing burst of spring, green among dying autumn leaves, green in the gray of winter trees, and still green in a shroud of snow, a changeless promise that the earth must wake to life again,"—is the central landmark of the story. It marks the rendezvous of fight and fun, of loot and love-making.

The mountain folk of Kentucky, whose life and homes Mr. Fox knows so well, have dormant in them, he believes, the intellectual vigor and capacity of the best of our pioneers. The rapidity with which "June" Tolliver's mind developed under the influence of city schools and social life leads Mr. Fox to remark that "the mountaineers were of the same class as the other westward-sweeping emigrants of more than a century before, that they had simply lain dormant in the hills, that their possibilities were little changed, and that the children of that day would, if given the chance, wipe out the handicap of a century in one generation and take their place abreast with the children of the outside world."

As for "June" herself, when the hero first met her, "a sculptor would have loved the rounded slenderness in the curving long lines that shaped her brown throat. . . . There were times when a brooding look stole over her eyes, and then they were the lair for the mysterious loneliness that was the very spirit of Lonesome Cove."

There is more than one very human, albeit reprobate, character in the book. The "Red Fox" is a figure very well drawn, as is also "Devil Judd," and, as for the threatened fight at the court house between the Tollivers and the Falins, the description is full of dash and dramatic strength. Once in a while Mr. Fox forgets and permits himself to wander off into observations of what might have happened if things had not been as they were, which in a measure destroys the dramatic unity. But, to repeat, the technique in this story is the best he has ever shown. His descriptions of the natural scenery in the wild country and of the mountaineer, "who hates as long as he remembers,—and he never forgets," are very graphic. In the words of the "Hon. Sam Budd," hear him "give a character sketch of the hill people of Kentucky and Virginia":

"You see, mountains isolate people and the effect of isolation on human life is to crystallize it. Those people over the line have had no navigable rivers, no lakes, no wagon roads, except often the beds of streams. They have been cut off from all communication with the outside world. They are a perfect example of an arrested civilization, and they are the closest link we have with the Old World. They were Unionists because of the Revolution, as they were Americans in the beginning because of the spirit of the Covenanter. They live like the pioneers; the axe and the rifle are still their weapons, and they still have the same fight with nature. This feud business is a matter of clan-loyalty that goes back to Scotland. They argue this way: You are my friend or my kinsman, your quarrel is my quarrel, and whoever hits you hits me. If you are in trouble, I must not testify against you. If you are an officer, you must not arrest me; you must send me a kindly request to come into court. If I'm innocent and it's perfectly convenient,—why, maybe I'll come."

Of course, the story ends happily, for John Hale and "June" Tolliver are married by a country justice in the mountains, "where nature was their Church and the stars were their candles."

* "The Trail of the Lonesome Pine." By John Fox, Jr. Scribners. 422 pp., ill. $1.50.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BIOGRAPHY AND REMINISCENCE.

The Life of Thomas Bailey Aldrich. By Ferris Greenslet. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 303 pp., ill. $3.

There is, of course, much interest of a purely literary sort in Mr. Greenslet's biography of Thomas Bailey Aldrich, but it is surpassed by the human interest. All the men and boys who have ever read Mr. Aldrich's famous "Story of a Bad Boy" will be greatly entertained by the opening chapter of Mr. Greenslet's life of the poet, in which the scenes of "Tom Bailey's" youthful activities are cleverly described. The young poet's subsequent life in New York City, related under the expressive caption, "The Hall Bedroom," reveals the beginnings of several important literary friendships. The later episodes in Mr. Aldrich's career are better known to the public of to-day. The years devoted to the editorship of the *Atlantic Monthly* were in some respects the most important of his life, but during the later years of greater leisure he retained and developed his function as a critic.

Abraham Lincoln, The Boy and the Man. By James Morgan. Macmillan. 435 pp., ill. $1.50.

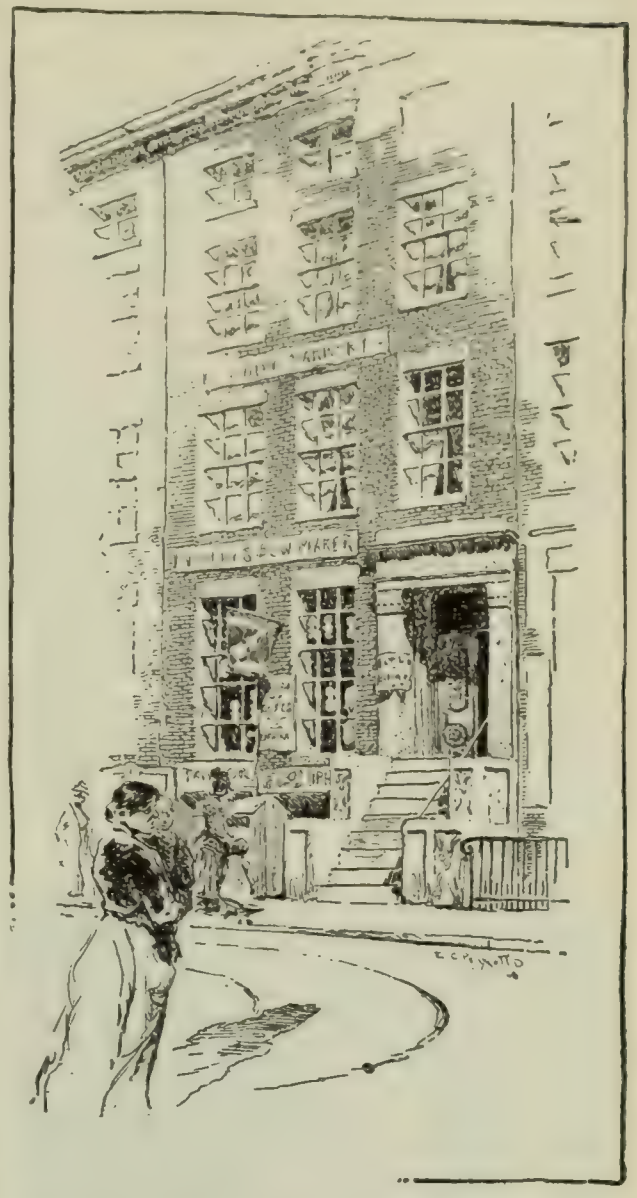
Mr. Morgan, whose life of "Theodore Roosevelt, The Boy and the Man," met with an unusual success as a popular biography, has prepared a similar sketch of the life of Abraham Lincoln, the centenary of whose birth will be widely observed next winter. Nobody at this late day looks for anything novel in any popular life of Lincoln. The field has been worked so thoroughly by a long line of biographers that there is hardly a possibility of any important discovery being made in the record of Lincoln's life. Mr. Morgan makes no pretentions to original work. As he says, his book is not a critical study, but a simple story,—a series of dramatic pictures of the struggles and achievements of a common man in whom a race of common men is exalted. In the preparation of his book Mr. Morgan has made use of the various accessible authorities, presenting those incidents in his hero's life which are most significant and essential.

Recollections of a Varied Career. By William F. Draper. Little, Brown. 411 pp., ill. $3.

General Draper was a soldier in the Civil War, member of Congress, and a war-time diplomat with a varied and inspiring career. His "Recollections" not only lay before the reader the public aspects of his career, but give an insight into his business life, most of which was passed as the head of one of the largest industrial establishments in the State of Massachusetts.

John C. Calhoun. By Gaillard Hunt. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. 335 pp., por. $1.25.

It has been said by more than one judicious historian that very few American statesmen have had so strong an influence upon their time as John C. Calhoun. Although his cause failed, he was identified with that cause more than any other man in our history, "and it was a central idea in which nearly half the American people believed until it was destroyed by the Civil War." Mr. Hunt's sketch of the life and influence of the Southern statesman is a sympathetic and useful one, and he has supplemented his text with chronological and bibliographical notes. The book is one of the series of American Crisis Biographies.



PRESENT APPEARANCE OF THE OLD NEW YORK HOUSE WHERE THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH DID HIS EARLIER WRITING.

(From "The Life of Thomas Bailey Aldrich.")

Famous Cavalry Leaders. By Charles H. L. Johnston. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 393 pp., ill. $1.50.

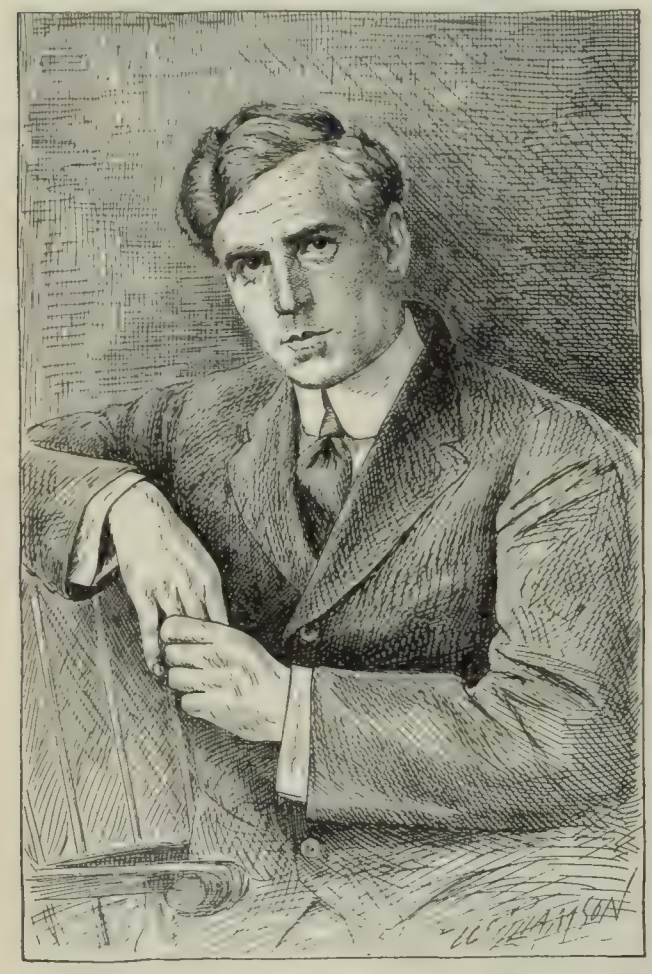
Fifteen of the heroes of saber, spur, and saddle, from the time of Attila to our own Indian wars on the Western plains, are represented in this volume. The four Americans designated for inclusion in the group are Francis Marion, the Revolutionary general; Jeb Stuart, the Confederate cavalier; Phil Sheridan, the hero of

Winchester, and George Armstrong Custer, the Indian fighter.

SOME WORKS OF FICTION.

The Testing of Diana Mallory. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Harper. 549 pp., ill. $1.50.

It would be a very unusual fiction season indeed that did not see the appearance of at least one novel by Mrs. Humphry Ward. Fiction readers have learned to await with real interest the appearance of Mrs. Ward's stories and to speculate as to what new combination she will make of her regular series of themes and scenes. In this latest tale there is the familiar atmosphere of higher British politics, the well-known descriptions of Italian scenery, and the absorbingly interesting plot hinging upon the mystery attaching to the origin or temperament of the gifted and wealthy young woman. Diana Mallory is, we think, more human and more lovable than any other of Mrs. Ward's heroines. It is not a great novel, but Diana is almost a great figure. Young, sincere, and sweet-hearted, she suddenly learns that her young mother, who had died almost before the daughter knew her, had killed a man whom the world believed her lover. Just before this blow falls Diana is betrothed to the man she loves. Oliver Marsham is a typical product of his rather caddish British convention. He fails her at first. Indeed, we refuse to enthuse over him at all, and when Diana saves the wreck of him (he became blind from an accident) and marries him we doubt if there exists the reader who sympathizes with him even in his misfortune or who does not question the use of saving him. The whole story, which moves brilliantly with Mrs. Ward's usual play of feeling and sentiment, is the story of the great love of a woman. There is no one in it worth while except Diana, and she, it may conservatively be said, is a more attractive person than Lady Rose's daughter, Kitty Ashe, or indeed any of Mrs. Ward's other women.



NORMAN DUNCAN.
(Author of "Every Man for Himself.")

Every Man for Himself. By Norman Duncan. Harper. 305 pp., ill. $1.50.

The same rare sympathy, knowledge of the human heart, and appeal to healthy sentiment that won us in "Dr. Luke of the Labrador" characterize these tales. Most of them have their scenes in that bleak, northern land, although some are also aglow with the warm imagery and heart throbs of Armenia and Syria. Salim, the pack-peddler, is one of the most attractive of the characters. The best three stories, we think, are "The Minstrel," "The Squall," and "They Who Lose at Love."

The Palace of Danger. By Mabel Wagnalls. Funk & Wagnalls. 311 pp., ill. $1.50.

This is a keenly dramatic story of the days and influence of the famous, or notorious, Mme. de Pompadour. The immense power of this woman for good or evil in France, the infatuation for her of the hero, a young courtier, and the sweet and guileless simplicity of a young convent maiden,—these form the thread upon which the story hinges. It is a thoroughly human tale and so well constructed that the interest holds one to the end. Perhaps there are too many dramatic surprises, but they are all of the kind that might really have happened. The illustrations are by the historical painter, John Ward Dunsmore. Miss Wagnalls, it will be remembered, is the author of "Miserere," "Stars of the Opera," and other works.

The Binding of the Strong. By Caroline Atwater Mason. Fleming H. Revell & Co. 352 pp., ill. $1.50.

This pleasantly told tale is the love story of the poet Milton. Mrs. Mason,—author, by the way, of several other novels, including "A Lily of France" and "The Little Green God,"—has adhered most closely to historical facts, but has given her chief attention to telling the story of the hopeless passion of the great, saintly man for Delmé Davies. The appearance of this book is timely, in view of the renewed interest in Milton's personality and works stimulated by the coming tercentenary of his birth next month at Cambridge University.

Lewis Rand. By Mary Johnston. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 510 pp., ill. $1.50.

After desisting for four years from novel-writing Miss Johnston reappears with a characteristic story of Virginia life in the period of Jefferson's Administration. The hero of the tale is a lawyer who was involved in Aaron Burr's operations in the Southwest, and Burr himself figures in several of the chapters. So does President Jefferson. Some of the customs of the time, notably the method of *viva voce* voting, are well described.



CAROLINE ATWATER MASON.
(Author of "The Binding of the Strong.")

PROBLEMS OF THE DAY.

The Confessions of a Railroad Signalman. By J. O. Fagan. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 181 pp., ill. $1.

When these "confessions" appeared in the form of articles contributed to the *Atlantic Monthly* they attracted much attention. Still more interest was aroused when something of the personality of the writer became known. It appears that Mr. Fagan, the author of the "confessions," is a real signalman, having been stationed at the signal tower of Cambridge, Mass., for the past twenty years. The studies that he has made of railroad management during that time have commended themselves to many railroad experts and have finally led to his appointment to a lectureship at Harvard University. To the layman Mr. Fagan's writings on the subject of railroad accidents impress themselves as singularly judicious, fair, and well considered. He does not content himself with an idealist's statement of what ought to be, but takes into account existing conditions in the operative departments of our great railroads, and attempts to show how with all the recognized difficulties of administration there may yet be worked out a scheme that will assure a far smaller proportion of fatalities in the running of our trains. His conclusions are so practical and so obviously based on experience and observation from the inside that they cannot be hastily dismissed by railroad officials, nor do we believe that a majority of railroad officials after reading Mr. Fagan's book would accord them such treatment. Those "higher up" who have wondered how accidents could occur on the roads under their control may get new light on the problem from these "confessions."

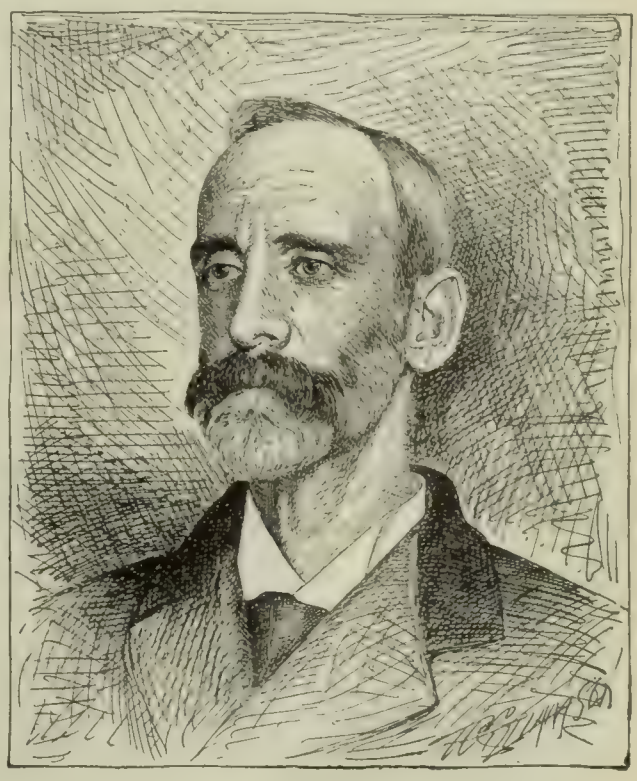
The Call of the City. By Charles Mulford Robinson. Paul Elder & Co. 103 pp., ill. $1.25.

The Lure of the City. By Dr. David James Burrell. Funk & Wagnalls. 284 pp. $1.

Mr. Robinson's favorite subject in the other books and magazine articles which he has put to his credit during the past few years is urban life, particularly in its phases of civic improvement and municipal art. Mr. Robinson loves the city and writes sentimentally about its charm, but we venture to say that few will agree with his contention that the city is really more beautiful and charming than the country. However, since so much has been said of the evils and horrors of city life, perhaps it was well to have written this little rhapsody. Dr. Burrell's book is of a different order. It is really a collection of sermons addressed to young men coming to the city for the first time and admonishing them how they may escape the "lure," which to Dr. Burrell is almost always toward evil men and things. He writes here with his well-known vigor.

Problems of City Government. By L. S. Rowe. Appleton. 358 pp. $1.50.

Professor Rowe undertakes in this volume to make available for American use the municipal experiences of foreign countries. His book, however, is much more than a mere summary of foreign experience. The author analyzes the principles involved in American municipal development and shows the presence of causes which go far to explain important changes in our social structure. On the question of municipal ownership of public utilities, while recognizing the practical impossibility of any immediate adopton of this principle on a large scale, Dr.



J. O. FAGAN.
(Author of "Confessions of a Railroad Signalman.")

Rowe contends that experiments in municipal ownership should be encouraged. He believes, further, that the sentiment in favor of municipal ownership and even of municipal operation will acquire increasing force with each year, due primarily, as he puts it, to the influence of one of the factors to which little attention has been given,—namely, the opposition to monopoly. He also points out that experiments made hereafter in the United States will be conducted under more favorable conditions than any previous period. The civic life of our American cities may be placed on a higher plane by the mere effort to meet the responsibilities involved in municipal operation of the public-service industries.

Our City Schools: Their Direction and Management. By William E. Chancellor. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 338 pp. $1.25.

This little book, by the Superintendent of Schools of the District of Columbia, was written with direct reference to the problems that are peculiar to cities of more than 40,000 population, and is intended to complement the author's earlier work, which dealt with conditions prevailing in communities of from 5000 to 40,000 population. Superintendent Chancellor has had wide experience in school administration, having served in cities of great diversity in size and characteristics and holding at present what he rightly terms a strategic position,—the superintendency of schools of the national capital. He makes the claim for his present book that while no one city exemplifies all that it advocates, yet most of what is proposed is a reality somewhere.

Road Preservation and Dust Prevention. By William P. Judson. New York: Engineering News Publishing Company. 146 pp., ill. $1.50.

Owing to the increased use of automobiles it has become a practical and pressing question in many parts of the country whether hundreds of miles of costly macadam road shall be allowed to go to destruction, or whether some means of prompt and effective betterment can be devised. No one would not contend that the automobile should be abolished, but the threatened ruination of our highways is likely to bring about much hostile legislation, unless something can be done immediately to check the destruction. In this little book Mr. Judson gives some of the results of his own observation and experience in dealing with the problem of road dust. What he has to say about the many failures in attempting to control and prevent dust is perhaps as valuable as any part of his book, for by heeding the warnings road officials and engineers in many parts of the country might be spared the useless expenditure of thousands of dollars, to say nothing of much discomfort and injury. Mr. Judson has made a careful study of the various oils and coal-tar preparations recommended for use on roads, and gives many valuable suggestions regarding the adaptability of particular materials to local conditions. He shows how rural roads may be maintained practically dustless at a minimum expense, and his book should be in the hands of State and local road officials throughout the country.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO HISTORY.

Canadian Types of the Old Régime (1608-1698). By Charles W. Colby. Henry Holt & Co. 366 pp., ill. $2.75.

At this time, when the attention of the world has been so recently drawn to the celebration of three hundred years of Canadian history, Professor Colby's sympathetic and illuminating studies of old-time Canadian worthies come with especial interest. The chapters of this book were originally lectures delivered during the author's courses in history at McGill University. He has considered Champlain, the explorer; Brébeuf, the missionary; Hébert, the colonist; d'Iberville, the soldier; DuLhut, the Coureur de Bois; Talon, the intendant; Laval, the bishop; Frontenac, the governor; and, finally, under various names, the early Canadian woman. The introductory chapter on the historical background of New France is one of the most interesting in the volume, but the most suggestive, we think, is the chapter on Talon, whose grasp of the economic and industrial needs of the infant dominion was really most remarkable. Talon was "a business man endowed with a rare capacity for business and instinct with public spirit. . . . On the whole, he appears to have furthered the cause of the French race in America beyond any other official whom the French crown ever sent to the banks of the St. Lawrence."

The World's Great Events. By Albert Payson Terhune. Dodd, Mead. 308 pp., ill. $1.20.

Fifty decisive episodes in world history are related in this volume of 300 pages. The style is graphic and terse, and as the writing in the first instance was done for newspaper publication there is no great elaboration of either matter or form. The fifty brief essays do just what they were intended to do when they appeared in the columns of the New York *Evening World*. They give the essential facts of each event in their proper historical setting, and they do this in a way calculated to interest the casual reader. The book makes excellent supplementary reading for high-school classes in history.

The Later Years of Catherine de Medici. By Edith Sichel. Dutton. 446 pp., ill. $3.

A Group of Scottish Women. By Harry Graham. Duffield & Co. 343 pp., ill. $3.50.

In her former works, "The Households of the Lafayettes" and "Catherine de Medici and the French Reformation," Miss Sichel showed herself to possess the spirit of the real historian. This later volume is written with even more spirit and skill, and the pictures she presents of the life and times of the Queen Mother, whose memory has been so execrated,—and perhaps misunderstood,—is vivid and enlightening. Seldom has there come to our notice such a graphic yet dispassionate account of the "Massacre of St. Bartholomew" as we find in this volume. Mr. Graham thinks that no country, in proportion to its population and the part it played in the history of the world, has had so many noted women as Scotland. In this volume he gives a series of lively and sympathetic sketches of famous Scottish women, beginning with Der-

vorguilla, who lived in the thirteenth century, and ending with Miss Clementina Graham, that lady of great political influence, who died in 1877.

The Builders of United Italy (1808-1898). By Rupert Sargent Holland. Holt. 349 pp., ill. $2.

Danton and the French Revolution. By Charles F. Warwick. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. 467 pp., ill. $2.50.

Of the "Builders of United Italy" even the historical student of to-day knows but little beyond the names of Cavour, Mazzini, and Garibaldi. Mr. Holland, in his excellent little volume, has rounded out the picture by giving us a sketch of all the prominent figures in that "most desperate and hopeful page in European history,"—the Italian risorgimento. He considers, presenting excellent portraits in each case, "Alfieri, the Poet"; "Mazoni, the Man of Letters"; "Gioberti, the Philosopher"; "Manin, the Father of Venice"; "Mazzini, the Prophet"; "Cavour, the Statesman"; "Garibaldi, the Crusader"; and "Victor Emmanuel, the King." Mr. Warwick's former volume, on "Mirabeau and the French Revolution," gave us a taste of his quality. The study of Danton is the second in a trilogy he purposes writing, the last to be on Robespierre.

Ocean Life in the Old Sailing-Ship Days. By John D. Whidden. Little, Brown & Co. 314 pp., ill. $1.50.

Not many are left to tell the tale of the old New England sailing-ships, and for that reason such a record as that of Captain Whidden is the more to be prized. The Captain at one time or another in his long sea service visited many ports in the far East, in South America, and in the Mediterranean. His book not only relates his experiences as a voyager, but gives remarkable insight into the ships and seafaring methods of a past generation.

The Story of the New England Whalers. By John R. Spears. Macmillan. 418 pp., ill. $1.50.

Mr. Spears has delved in the records of 250 years of New England whale fishing, and no important phase of the subject has escaped him. It is well that the story of this important industry should be thus preserved, for the American whale-fishery will soon be a thing of the past. It is stated that the fleet now numbers forty vessels, of which eighteen are owned in San Francisco. In 1860 no fewer than 508 vessels were in the trade.

English Voyages of Adventure and Discovery. By Edwin M. Bacon. Scribners. 401 pp., ill. $1.50.

This is an account of Richard Hakluyt and his narratives of English exploration and adventure from the earliest records to the establishment of the English colonies in North America. The book was prepared at the instance of Edwin D. Mead, a leading spirit in what is known as the "Old South Work" for instruction in American history, and its purpose is to draw the youth of to-day to an important source of American history. Mr. Bacon has summarized the narrative contained in Hakluyt's well-known "Principal Navigations" into a coherent story from the earliest adventures chiefly for conquest to those for discovery and expansion of trade, and finally for colonization, down to the settlement of Virginia.



CATHERINE DE MEDICI.

(Frontispiece of "The Later Years of Catherine de Medici," by Edith Sichel.)

The Story of a Border City During the Civil War. By Galusha Anderson. Little, Brown & Co. 385 pp., ill. $1.50.

This book tells the interesting story of St. Louis during the Civil War. Many of the dramatic incidents in that story were made familiar to thousands of readers by Mr. Winston Churchill's novel, "The Crisis," which appeared several years ago. All readers of Mr. Churchill's book will, we are sure, be entertained and instructed by the intimate account which Dr. Anderson gives of his own experences as a clergyman in St. Louis from 1858 to 1866. It will be remembered that at the outbreak of the war Missourians were divided between secession and the Union. The brunt of the struggle naturally was borne by St. Louis, the metropolis of the State.

ESSAYS.

Magazine Writing and the New Literature. By Henry Mills Alden. Harpers. 321 pp., por. $2.

Mr. Alden, who has long been the dean of American magazine editors, writes in this volume of the relation of periodical to general literature and of the development of literature itself. His chapters on "Early Periodical Literature," "English Periodical Literature in the Nineteenth Century," "American Periodicals," "The American Audience," and "The Scope of a First-Class American Magazine," are of spe-



MRS. LEONIDAS HUBBARD, JR.
(Author of "A Woman's Way Through Unknown Labrador.")

cial interest because of the writer's long-continued association with the magazine as a distinctively American institution and because of his close acquaintance with American writers during the past half-century.

The Privileged Classes. By Barrett Wendell. Scribner. 274 pp. $1.25.

In the four essays that make up this volume Professor Wendell discusses the deeper problems of higher education in their relation to present-day American life. The papers were originally presented as addresses on literary and educational occasions.

Orthodoxy. By Gilbert K. Chesterton. New York: John Lane Company. 299 pp. $1.50.

The virile, audacious comparisons and philippics of Mr. Chesterton have for several years been eagerly read by liberal thinkers. The present volume is meant to be a companion volume to the former one, entitled "Heretics," which created a great deal of discussion in Great Britain. "Orthodoxy" is an attempt, Mr. Chesterton declares, to explain "not whether the Christian faith can be believed in, but how the writer personally has come to believe it."

Realities and Ideals. By Frederic Harrison. Macmillan. 462 pp. $1.75.

Everything that Mr. Harrison writes is so "meaty" and thought-provoking that it seems scarcely necessary to call attention to these qualities in the collection of essays that make up the present volume. The social, political, literary, and artistic realities and ideals that he treats of in his essays include the relations of England and France, the social and political future of woman, the status of civil and religious marriage in England, studies in the relations of the established church to the British Government, the revival of the drama, literature in England, and a dozen or more studies of eminent Englishmen of the nineteenth century. The general theory of life upon which these essays are grounded, Mr. Harrison modestly asserts in his prefatory note, "assumes that every form of culture and everything that tends to brighten our existence should contribute in its place to the sum of human happiness,—'nothing human is foreign to man.'"

DESCRIPTION AND TRAVEL.

The Niagara River. By Archer B. Hulbert. Putnam. 319 pp., ill. $3.50.

Half of Professor Hulbert's volume is devoted to the present-day interests of Niagara and half to the historical associations of the river and its various settlements. The reader will find here a very good popular account of the geographical revelations of the Niagara Gorge, together with a full and fair discussion of the impending dangers to the scenic value of the Falls resulting from the use of the water for industrial purposes. A very good account is given of the part which the Niagara region had in the war of 1812. Not the least interesting feature of the work is the chronicle of achievements accredited to a long list of adventurers and adventuresses who have braved the fury of Niagara's waters in casks or boats or who have crossed from shore to shore on ropes or wires.

The Jungle Folk of Africa. By Robert H. Milligan. Fleming H. Revell Company. 380 pp., ill. $1.50.

It has occurred to Mr. Milligan that the native African is worth knowing on his own account, and with a view to presenting this human side of the Dark Continent he gives in this volume some of his own experiences with the people of the jungle, confining his attention to that part of the west coast which he knows intimately from seven years' residence. The book is entertaining and far more illuminating than many of the travelers' accounts that have appeared in recent years.

A Woman's Way Through Unknown Labrador. By Mrs. Leonidas Hubbard, Jr. McClure Publishing Company. 305 pp., ill. $1.50.

This book records Mrs. Hubbard's unique experiences as an explorer and relates in detail how her husband's unfinished work was completed, besides including the greater part of the diary kept by Mr. Hubbard himself and an account of the last days of that intrepid explorer. It is an interesting fact that this journey made by a woman is the only one over the region in question that has been recognized by the geographical authorities of America and Europe. The book is illustrated from photographs.

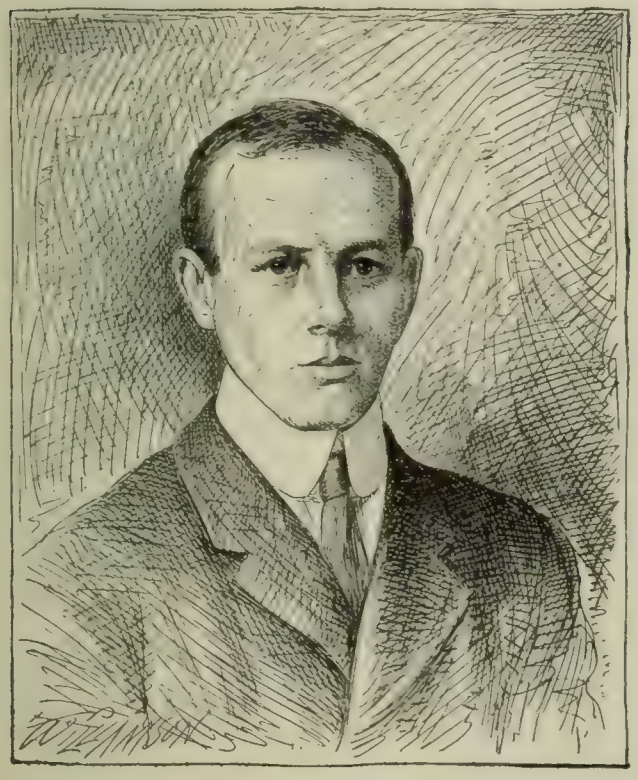
Servia and the Servians. By M. Chedo Mijatovich. Boston: L. C. Page. 284 pp., ill. $3.

Dr. Mijatovich was formerly Servian minister at the court of St. James. He is author of a number of works on the Balkans, including "A Royal Tragedy," describing the assassina-

tion of King Alexander and Queen Draga, a book already noticed in these pages. Just now, when the attention of the entire world is being turned to the Slav nations of the Balkan region, these works of Dr. Mijatovich, written in the opening weeks of the present year, seem particularly significant: "The Balkan peninsula is predestined to press in this new century more and more forward in the forefront of at least European history, if not of the world's history." The Servians, says this author, are one of the most gifted and interesting nations in southeastern Europe. I pay them, he continues, a "great and well-deserved compliment, at the same time hinting at the weak points of their psychological constitution, when I say that they are the Irish of the Balkans." The volume consists of chapters on the history, religion, and national characteristics of the people, including special chapters on the peasant, the music, the literature, and the economic possibilities of Servia. An appendix contains a specimen of the Servian national poems and of Servian folklore, and gives some interesting statistical information of the most recent data upon the country of King Peter. There are sixteen full-page illustrations, chiefly from photographs taken by the author, landscape views and peasant type.

Hungary and the Hungarians. By W. B. Forster Bovill. McClure Publishing Company. 352 pp., ill. $2.

The text of this volume is found in the closing sentence of the introduction: "The Hungarians are the most bewildering, fascinating, and hospitable race in Europe I have ever met, but to know what they are going to do next is to assume the office of the seer." Some very vivid descriptive writing about a comparatively unknown fascinating people makes this volume



ARTHUR RUHL.
(Author of "The Other Americans.")



Illustration (reduced) from "Servia and the Servians."

an unusually attractive work of descriptive travels. With all their fascination and high intellectual ability, Mr. Bovill thinks the Hungarians are lacking in that genius for practical organization which is necessary for continued political existence. Hungary, he says, is "overpolitical." The volume is illustrated with sixteen full-page pictures in color by William Pascoe and twelve other illustrations.

The Other Americans. By Arthur Ruhl. Scribners. 321 pp., ill. $2.

Mr. Ruhl is a high-class journalist who recently made a more than usually extended tour throughout the continent of South America. He had the great good fortune to be present in Rio Janeiro and Buenos Aires at the time Secretary Root was presenting the good wishes of the North American republic to these "Other Americans" of the southern hemisphere. For, as Mr. Ruhl points out, to the people of Mexico, Brazil, Chile, and Argentina we are not Americans in the exclusive sense. We are *Norte-Americano* or *Yanki*. The Argentinian, the Brazilian, and the Peruvian is, he claims, quite as much an American as are we inhabitants of these United States. It has heretofore been our pleasure, says this author to ignore the "Other Americans," to know nothing really of what they or their cities are like, or their ambitions and problems. It is about these things that Mr. Ruhl discourses most entertainingly and informingly in this volume, which is profusely illustrated from photographs. There is an appendix consisting of statistics and other data and a good index. We ought to know

more about these "Other Americans," Mr. Ruhl insists, since half the western world is theirs.

BOOKS OF REFERENCE.

Economics. By Scott Nearing and Frank D. Watson. Macmillan. 499 pp. $1.90.

This volume is a very good illustration of the modern type of textbooks in the science of political economy. Formerly there was little or no attempt to teach anything more than the theory of economics in our colleges, which after a time came to be supplemented by brief courses of lectures dealing with concrete economic phenomena. The present method of college instruction is quite different. The student is made acquainted not only with economic doctrine but with a cosiderable body of facts which illustrate and make clear the theories advanced. In the present volume this tendency is especially marked. The conditions of our economic life are set forth in concrete terms. For example, under the head of "Labor and Industrial Efficiency" such topics as immigration, city life, the school, child labor, women who work, are treated; and under "New Forms of Industry" we have discussions of the railroad as a public utility, railroad control, the Standard Oil Company, the United States Steel Corporation, the corporation and the public, and anti-trust legislation. A separate section is devoted to the subject of "Municipal Monopolies." Under the head of "Economic Experiments" the student is led to consider collective bargaining and the open shop, the eight-hour day, restriction of output, strikes and lockouts, boycotts and blacklists, the injunction in labor disputes, the trade agreement and arbitration, the trade union, and the methods and results of co-operation and profit-sharing. The lively and journalistic treatment of these vital present-day problems ought to impress the student with the importance and vitality of the whole subject of economics and should add much to the interest of classroom work.

Esperanto in Fifty Lessons. By Edmond Privat. Fleming H. Revell Company. 168 pp. $0.50.

Esperanto at a Glance. By Edmond Privat. Fleming H. Revell Company. 96 pp. $0.15.

English-Esperanto Dictionary. By J. C. O'Connor and C. F. Hayes. London: Review of Reviews. 200 pp. 1s. 6d.

Mr. Privat, a native of Switzerland, is well known to Esperantists all over the world as one of the foremost advocates and interpreters of the new language. His two little handy volumes are guides to a workable knowledge of Esperanto. The dictionary has had the revision and approval of Dr. Zamenhof, originator of the language, himself.

Principles of Physiology and Hygiene. By George W. Fitz, M. D. Holt. 357 pp., ill. $1.12.

This is a high school textbook of more than ordinary interest. The writer has taught physiology for many years, chiefly in normal schools, and has come to know what are the real uses of a textbook in this subject and in what respect most of the existing books fall short of the demand. In the present volume particular attention has been given to the illustrations, many of which are entirely new, and in this as in other features of the book, advantage has been taken of the latest and most advanced work of specialists.

The Science of Jurisprudence. By Hannis Taylor. Macmillan. 676 pp. $3.50.

In this scholarly work Dr. Taylor has given us a treatise on the growth of positive law, treating the subject by the historical method and classifying and defining its elements by the method of analysis. Dr. Taylor's many works on jurisprudence already published, which include "The Origin and Growth of the English Constitution," "International Public Law," and "Jurisdiction and Procedure of the Supreme Court of the United States," have gained a most respectful hearing for anything he writes. Dr. Taylor, it will be remembered, was formerly United States Minister to Spain.

A Short History of Engraving and Etching. By A. M. Hind. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 473 pp., ill. $5.

This is a compendious historical treatise on the development of engraving and etching, designed principally for the use of collectors and students. It is copiously illustrated with photogravures and other illustrations, and the text is supplemented by a full bibliography taking the form of a classified list and index of engravers. Mr. Hind is superintendent of the Department of Prints and Drawings in the British Museum.

Chaucer, a Bibliographical Manual. By Eleanor Prescott Hammond. Macmillan. 579 pp. $3.

This is a discussion of the acknowledged authentic texts of Chaucer, with no attempt to include annotations or references to concordances. A full reference list and index add to its value.

The Housekeeper's Week. By Marion Harland. Bobbs-Merrill Company. 439 pp., ill. $1.50.

This is a skilful grouping of suggestions regarding the various forms of housework under the days of the week. Those topics that are not especially related to any particular day are treated in separate chapters. The author has won a wide reputation through her treatises on cookery.

Clarkson's Standard American Dictionary of the English Language. Prepared under the editorial supervision of Thomas H. Russell, Albert C. Bean, and L. B. Vaughan. Chicago: The David B. Clarkson Company. 2176 pp., with copious illustrations, tables, maps, and diagrams. $12.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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THE GERMAN EMPRESS ON HER FIFTIETH BIRTHDAY.

On October 22, the German people celebrated the fiftieth birthday of the Kaiserin, who is a few months the senior of the Kaiser. The royal pair, who were married on February 27, 1881, have six sons and one daughter. The Empress was Princess Victoria, daughter of Duke Friedrich, of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Prosperity in High Tide Again.

The American people can adjust themselves to changing conditions and move forward with a cheerful optimism that is perhaps without a parallel in all history. A year ago the country was in the throes of a currency panic, with real money and legal tender so hard to get hold of that a thousand sorts of queer and makeshift substitutes for money were passing from hand to hand. The financial panic was followed by an extreme industrial depression. To-day, as for several months past, lawful currency is more abundant and readily available than ever before, and people have forgotten even the appearance of a clearing-house certificate or a Standard Oil pay-roll check. The Knickerbocker Trust Company is again one of our most flourishing financial institutions, and the panic has passed into the realm of financial history along with the crisis of 1873 and earlier collapses of credit and speculation. The stock market has been quick to discount the future, and the prices of many securities have fully recovered all that was lost in the panic, while some have lately made the highest record in their history. Prosperity turns upon sentiment; and prosperity has arrived again.

Confidence Fully Restored.

For a year or two before the panic many forms of industry had been prosperous beyond what should have been regarded as normal, and the railroad traffic that had, with its stupendous volume, far overtaxed the facilities of all the roads, so that paralysis had resulted from sheer excess of commerce, was an extreme and abnormal situation, that could not be expected to return at once. There is now every indication of a healthy resumption of manufacturing and general business, while every week the railroads report a smaller number of idle cars, and the fresh demand for labor promises good prospects for a happy Christmas and a busy winter in the homes of workingmen. The farmers have as a class experienced no hardship, inasmuch as the prices of their products have remained at a high level, and nature has supplied them again in 1908 with crops that average very well in quantity, even though not quite the largest on record. The business community was even more confident than were the politicians that Mr. Taft would be elected by decisive majorities. Election day was November 3; and on Wednesday morning, November 4, the result was fully discounted everywhere, business rather than politics was the prevailing topic, and a pleasant feeling of contentment and relief was the well-nigh universal sentiment expressed and exhibited in a thousand ways.

Southern Political Contentment.

Just after the election a Texas man telegraphed to Taft as follows: "I am a Democrat, and voted yesterday for Bryan. I am starting on the first vacation I have had for two years, and am contented to leave my business in your hands." Mr. Bryan's electoral votes, which will amount to 162, as against 321 for Mr. Taft, will all come from the Southern States (if Maryland and Oklahoma are to be treated as Southern); excepting for the eight electoral votes of his own State of Nebraska, the five of Colorado, and the three of Nevada. Yet no part of the country seems to be better satisfied with Taft's election than that part which alone could be relied upon to give its votes to Bryan. Four years ago Mr. Roosevelt received an overwhelming popular endorsement, and the result was received by the country with a good will so hearty and general that it was hard to discover any strain of discord in the chorus of acclaim. Mr. Taft's election is in its way

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THE "NIGHT RIDERS" OF "DOUBT" AND "DEPRESSION" FLY BEFORE THE UPRISING SUN.

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

even more remarkable. And the acceptance of it is still more significant as respects the state of the public mind and the present conditions of our political life. Mr. Roosevelt was accepted as the President of the whole country, and although a firm Republican, he has not been a narrow partisan in office.

Good Will Toward Mr. Taft.

The good will with which the Democrats accept the election of Mr. Taft shows that they are not bitter in their partisanship and that they do not believe Mr. Taft to have any narrow partisan prejudices. Furthermore, the Democrats have become so accustomed to being out of office that they have as a party accommodated themselves to the opportunities afforded by private life. Thus a sweeping Democratic defeat does not cause nearly so many men to have to look for new means of livelihood as would a sweeping Republican defeat. It must be remembered, however, that the spoils of victory are far less extensive than they used to be. Practically all of the routine offices in the federal service are now filled under the merit system, without the slightest regard to politics, so that appointive places in the main are non-partisan. Even the fourth-class postmasterships are far less political in their character than they were ten years ago. More and more the great postal organization is being reduced to terms of an efficient business machine. It is almost "out of politics."

Decline of Party Feeling.

Unquestionably, as this REVIEW has again and again pointed out, the country has for ten years been in a state of substantial accord upon most matters of large public moment. During this period, Mr. Taft's well-trained talents and great capacity for work have been at the service of the American people in posts of large responsibility, and no one has ventured to belittle the value of his official work or to asperse his public or private character. Through the trying weeks of the campaign,—when for lack of great and well-defined issues there was a temptation on the part of campaign managers and orators to descend to personalities,—no one could find anything to say against Mr. Taft that made the smallest impression in any quarter. It was so obvious to everybody that Mr. Taft was well qualified to be President that it did not even occur to the leaders of the opposition to oppose his election on the ground of any personal or public derelictions. The prevailing opinion of Mr. Taft was entirely correct, and it was not different at the end of the campaign, excepting that it was more general and more strongly confirmed. Mr. Taft was regarded as honest, experienced, public-spirited, of judicial temperament, of great capacity for work, of genial and happy disposition, and of a natural as well as a trained sympathy with all that is best in American life. For this reason his election satisfies.



UNCLE SAM (to Capital and Labor): "Pass your plate."

From the *Traveler* (Boston).



CHEERFUL IN SPITE OF HIS DEFEAT.

MR. BRYAN: "Good-bye, Judge Taft, and good luck. See you again in four years."

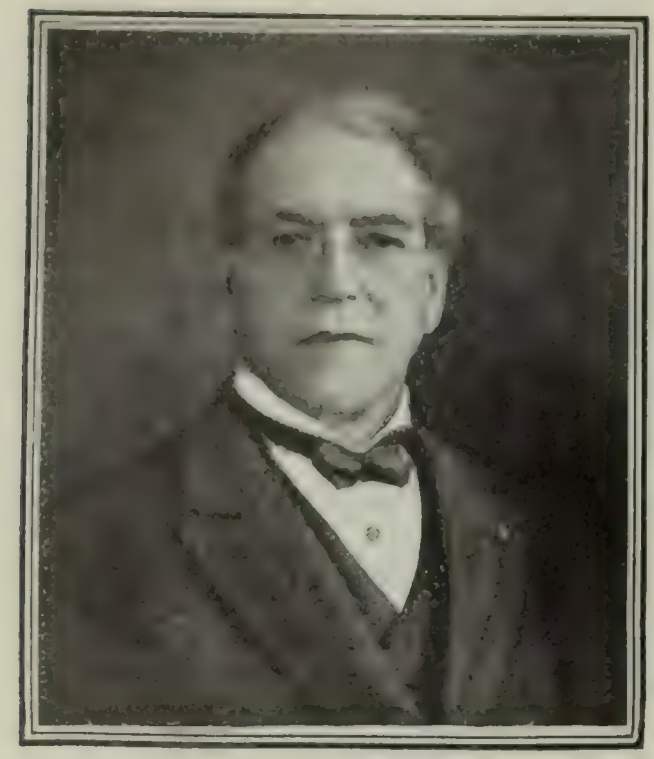
From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica).

Taft and the Labor Question.

The attempt to weaken Mr. Taft with wage-earners and with organized labor completely failed, for a very simple reason that might have been counted upon in advance. That reason is that it is almost impossible to fool great masses of men as to a candidate's real qualities and character. Nobody could be fairer or more open-minded than Mr. Taft, and it was easy for him to show workingmen that he was entirely sympathetic toward them, while understanding exceptionally well those somewhat technical questions about injunctions and other labor matters that had been injected into the campaign. Workingmen in the United States are, upon the whole, very intelligent, and they would not like to have for President of this country a man who would play the demagogue or cater insincerely for their votes. In the long run, nothing in the way of legislation or court procedure would be good for workingmen which is not good for everybody else, and which is not based upon the principles of fairness and equality before the law. Mr. Taft is now and long has been in a much better position to say what is fair about court practices and legislation than either Mr. Gompers, on the one hand, representing the extreme demands of unionism, or Mr. Van Cleave, on the other hand, who, as president of the Manufacturers' Association, has stood for extreme opposition to everything that Mr. Gompers has desired.

Taft, Gompers, and the Voters.

Mr. Taft had favored certain modifications in the court practices respecting injunctions, and had been committed to very liberal policies regarding employers' liability and other measures demanded by workingmen. He had, on the other hand, expressed himself as strongly opposed to secondary boycotts and certain other practices sometimes used by trade-unions. The country thinks Mr. Taft has common sense, and it sustains him overwhelmingly in his positions. The attempt of Mr. Gompers and others to make it appear that the American public was sharply divided on labor questions, and that Bryan and the Democrats stood for workingmen's rights, while Taft and the Republicans were against the workingmen, completely failed to convince any large number of people, for the plain reason that no such cleavage in public opinion actually exists. If the wage-earners and employed classes had been solidly lined up for Bryan, while the employers and controllers of capital had all been supporters of Taft, we should have had a political cleavage



MR. SAMUEL GOMPERS.

(Re-elected for the twenty-sixth time president of the American Federation of Labor.)

along social lines that would have been regrettable. Fortunately, nothing of that kind happened. American wage-earners, whether trade-unionists or not, do not feel themselves or their welfare bound up with the fortunes of any one political party. They are as free to be Republicans or Democrats as they are to be members of one church or another or of no church at all.

Gompers and His Political Efforts.

Mr. Gompers had been very much wrapped up in the attempt to pass certain bills at Washington. The framers of the Republican platform at Chicago took their work very responsibly, and Mr. Gompers found it hard to make headway there as against certain interests that were fighting him very bitterly, and that had also previously fought the labor positions taken by President Roosevelt and Mr. Taft. Naturally and properly, Mr. Gompers wanted both parties to go as far as they could in endorsing the measures to which he stood committed. He found Mr. Bryan, who had full authority in the shaping of the Democratic platform, much more ready to accept his planks than was the Republican resolutions committee, which refused to accept any platform perfunctorily. It was not strange that Mr. Gompers, under the circumstances, felt obliged to support the Democratic ticket; but it speaks much for the good sense of American trade-unionists that they felt perfectly free to vote as they liked, regardless of Mr. Gompers' advice, and it is plain that hundreds of thousands of them must have had the shrewd sense to see that the mere phrasings of party platforms were not conclusive as to which way workingmen or unionists ought to cast their votes. The American Federation of Labor held its annual meeting at Denver last month, and in our opinion it showed breadth of view and excellence of temper in electing Mr. Gompers for the twenty-sixth time to its presidency. Everybody makes mistakes.

The "Square Deal" in the Campaign.

Mr. Roosevelt, it is understood, will again present to Congress his well-known views as to the extension of employers' liability laws in such a way as to protect far better than heretofore all who are employed in government work. And undoubtedly Mr. Taft will be as well disposed toward the measures demanded by the American Federation of Labor as he would have been if Mr. Gompers had supported the Republican rather than the Democratic ticket. In other words, Mr. Taft in any case could be relied upon to use his best judgment as to legislation, while keeping his sympathies broad and generous toward the masses of his plain, hard-working fellow citizens. Thus the attempt to make it appear that Mr. Bryan in the recent campaign was the candidate and the champion of labor, while Mr. Taft was the candidate,—even if not the avowed champion,—of capital, has signally failed. Mr. Roosevelt's professed desire that every man should have a "square deal" before the law, has sometimes been questioned by certain representatives of capital, and sometimes it has been called insincere by certain spokesmen of trade-unions. Yet the country as a whole believes in Mr. Roosevelt's sincerity and in his ardent wish that the Government, the laws, and the courts shall do everything possible to preserve every man's equality of opportunity and his equal rights under our system of government and justice.

Roosevelt and the Financiers.

There is the same kind of confidence felt about Mr. Taft, as being fair-minded toward all interests. If capital may be regarded as a separate interest, in so far as its ownership or management is centered in the Wall Street neighborhood, it is true that capital has looked with alarm at Mr. Roosevelt. An

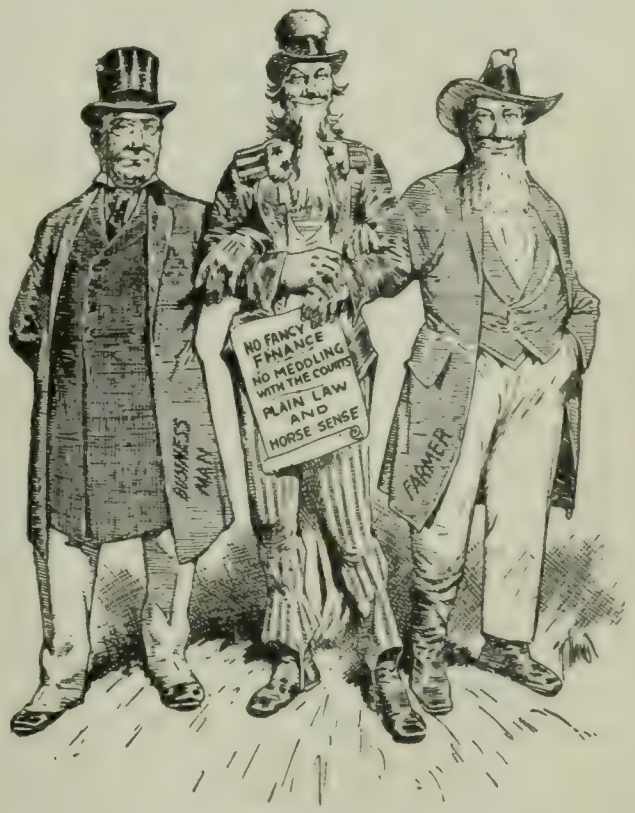
impartial statement of the reasons for this fear, which at times has affected Wall Street like a mania, would require much care and study. Its chief beginning was some years ago when the Government began its action against the Northern Securities Company. It is singular that Mr. Roosevelt should have been so bitterly blamed for this action, while Senator Knox, then Attorney-General, upon whose advice the action was brought, and who fought the matter to its conclusion, was so readily forgiven. The Roosevelt Administration has delivered the railroads in the main from the rebate system, which they hated but could not shake off; has rid them of the free-pass system, of which they had been the long-suffering victims; and in various other ways has conferred signal benefits upon them. The rate bill will not harm them in their legitimate interests, and the further measures advocated by the President for strengthening the Interstate Commerce Commission, allowing the railroads to make traffic agreements among themselves, and removing railroads from the operations of the Sherman Anti-Trust act, are all measures of constructive statesmanship which will benefit railroad property while also benefiting the users of railroads.

Beneficial Reforms.

As for Mr. Roosevelt's attitude toward large industrial corporations, he has aimed to protect smaller competitors in their undoubted rights to exist and do business, and he has favored a kind of government regulation and oversight that would help to eliminate the evils of corporate management, while not interfering with the prosperity of legitimate enterprises. Mr. Roosevelt recognizes the trend of modern business, and advocates the revision of the Sherman Anti-Trust law, so that it may not seem to threaten well-conducted enterprises merely because they are of vast dimensions. When the smoke is entirely cleared away, and a fair perspective may be had of Mr. Roosevelt's policies toward railroads and industrial corporations, it will be clear enough that he has been working for needed reforms and for measures that would help rather than hurt American business. To do what he has done, however, has seemed to require on Mr. Roosevelt's part a certain attitude of controversy, and he has from time to time used the vocabulary of denunciation with terrible vigor. Mr. Taft, through these years, has been a part of the Roosevelt Administration, and consulted at every step. He is committed absolutely to a continuance of Mr. Roosevelt's policies.

Wall Street's Mental State.

Yet the world of banking, railroading, and high finance, which has undoubtedly been a good deal afraid of Mr. Roosevelt, and was only a little more afraid of Mr. Bryan, seems to be not at all afraid of Mr. Taft. This world of finance has formed the habit of being scared at Mr. Roosevelt's tone of voice, and it always starts uneasily and shrinks when he is about to speak, like a much-whipped dog. At this moment it dreads his forthcoming message to Congress. The fact is that Wall Street is subject to emotional insanity; and the mere mention of Roosevelt's name used to throw the gentlemen of the "financial district" into convulsions. While Roosevelt-phobia is much milder now, and in some quarters has entirely disappeared, the habit of being frightened when the President's name is mentioned has left its lingering effects. Wall Street knows that Mr. Taft will work for the same kind of legislation and will stand for the same things in general, but it hopes that he will not so often speak of "malefactors" and "undesirable citizens." The business world, in short, has great confidence in Mr. Taft's good sense and judgment, and expects him to be as useful as Mr. Roosevelt to business interests



WE DID IT!
From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia).

Victory After a Panic.

It was certainly an unprecedented thing for Taft and the Republicans to carry the country by sweeping majorities at a time of business depression following a severe panic. According to all historical precedents, the party in power should permit itself to be thoroughly licked in the elections following a great business collapse. The Republicans would certainly have been beaten if the Democrats had been able to appear before the country as a consistent party, with a definite program that promised better things. But we live in a business age, and ours is pre-eminently a business country. Men care a great deal more about business than about politics, and it was not difficult to convince the country that the ordinary man's business interests were better assured under Taft and the Republicans than under Bryan and the Democrats. It is true that there are progressives and reactionaries in the Republican party, but Republican differences are slight when set over against the extreme discords of the Democracy. Mr. Bryan's economic and financial views are as different as possible from those of the leaders of the Cleveland Democracy, and quite unlike those of the foremost Southern statesmen. Nobody could foretell what kind of a cabinet would surround Mr. Bryan in case of his election, or how influential his views would be with the legislative branch in case of a Democratic Congress. Thus the party in power was given a strong vote of confidence in the very face of panic and industrial depression, with the consequence of an immediate revival of prosperity. Nothing quite like this has happened before in our political history.

What Were the Party Issues?

Now that the campaign is several weeks past, there are few close observers of it who can very clearly describe how it was fought and what the issues were. The intelligent foreigner who concluded that there was nothing at issue excepting the question whether the voters preferred to have Mr. Taft or Mr. Bryan in the White House, summed it up fairly well. There were no issues that involved foreign affairs, even remotely. The country has complete confidence in the way in which Mr. Roosevelt, Mr. Root, and Mr. Taft have dealt with our foreign relations and our insular dependencies. Sending our battleship fleet around the world was a tremendous venture, and it took courage at the outset. But it has been so successful a thing that the whole country has rejoiced, and the Democrats could not criticise. During the campaign we were occupying and administering Cuba, and yet the Democrats could make no issue out of that fact. We had taken practical hold of the affairs of San Domingo, and had guaranteed that republic's new debt by Presidential proclamation, yet no voice opposed this innovation,—at least none was heard by the country or encouraged by the Democratic National Committee. We are building the world's greatest public work at Panama, and this sort of thing is generally easy to make political scandal about. Yet our Panama policy has the approval of the entire country regardless of party. Mr. Taft has made a long and conspicuous record in connection with the Philippine Islands, yet no one can now remember that the Democrats found any issue against him in that quarter of the world. As regards military and naval matters, pensions to veterans, development of internal waterways, conservation of public resources, and various other topics of domestic policy, no issues were sharply drawn in the campaign, for the reason that the parties and the general public are all in accord.

Parties and Business Questions.

It is true that real efforts were made to find issues in such questions as the regulation of railroads, the curbing of trusts, and the control of large corporations; yet the records of the parties did not admit of any definite cleavage, and no well-defined issues were developed by the debates on the stump. Mr. Bryan attempted to propose some rule-of-thumb ways of getting at the corporations that were large enough to be in need of federal supervision; but his party as a whole paid no attention to his percentage theories. Again, Mr. Bryan tried very hard to make an issue out of the proposal to guarantee bank deposits; but the country absolutely refused to pay any attention whatever to the question itself, and much less would the country admit that the question was of a party character. The larger problem of banking and currency reform did not get into the campaign at all, and the country seemed quite willing to allow the currency commission to have a fair chance to study the subject and make a deliberate report. All were agreed that another panic could not occur in the immediate future, and it was easy to show that the proposal to guarantee bank deposits had no value as an immediate remedy or as an isolated measure.

The Tariff as an Issue.

There remained as a great possible issue the everlasting question of the tariff. Yet, while many able and intelligent speeches were made on the tariff question, it did not present itself as a squarely drawn issue between the parties. Congress last spring, before adjourning, had tried to make some defensive ammunition for the Republican campaign by giving an earnest of good intentions on the two great subjects of the currency and the tariff. It created the joint currency commission to study and report, and it provided for preliminary hearings before the regular committees on the tariff schedules, authorizing expert assistance in the preparation of data,—all with a view to a special session of Congress next March for the explicit purpose of revising the tariff. If the Democrats had been united and consistent in their historic opposition to the protectionist policy, they could have forced the fighting all along that line and made the tariff a real issue. But, alas, for the Democracy, even the tariff is no longer a party question. While the Republicans are more generally protectionist than are the Democrats, there is about as much tariff-reform sentiment to be found in one party as in the other. The country, which, —having been prosperous,—really knows very little about the actual tariff, is pervasively, though rather mildly, protectionist. The West and South have built up extensive and varied manufactures, which will all expect such consideration as their needs may require. In short, the tariff is no longer, as it used to be, a party question; nor is it sharply sectional, as it formerly was, in its bearings of advantage or disadvantage.



UNCLE SAM BEING MEASURED FOR A NEW SUIT.
From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth).

Races and Parties.

There have been times in the past when the race question counted for much in Presidential elections, when the Republicans championed negro rights, and when the Democrats accused the Republicans of seeking to force negro domination upon the South or else to curtail Southern representation in Congress. The negroes themselves had threatened this year to abandon the Republican party and cause its defeat in critical States like Indiana and Ohio, with a view to punishing the party because President Roosevelt disbanded several companies of negro troops after the investigation of the disorders at Brownsville, Texas. Many educated negroes urged their race to oppose Taft and vote for Bryan. The motive was a bad one and discreditable to negro intelligence. Apart from such motives, a division of the negro vote might be very desirable. The Republican party, in fact, is not more unselfishly concerned for the welfare of the negroes than is the Democratic party. But it was evident that the Democrats could not openly court the negro vote north of the Ohio River so long as they were so obviously opposed to having negroes vote in large numbers in the States further south. As an individual, any negro might vote the Democratic ticket, but as a member of the race he could not well urge negroes as such to change their party.

Why the South Keeps Solid.

In the South, meanwhile, the race question continued to play some part, and thus helped to maintain Democratic solidarity. There were many Democrats of intelligence and standing in Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, and the lower South who would have been very glad to vote for Mr. Taft but for the serious misunderstanding this would have occasioned in their neighborhoods. Southern Democrats in general believe that the Republican party of the North wishes, and intends if possible, either to bring about unrestricted negro suffrage in the South or else to reduce the representation of the South in Congress. Four years ago the Republican platform took such ground specifically. The platform this year, while not expressly demanding reduction of representation, carries a pretentious plank

entitled "rights of the negro," which claims that the Republican party has been the "consistent friend" of that race for half a century. "We declare once more," says this plank, "and without reservation, for the enforcement in letter and spirit of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution, which were designed for the protection and advancement of the negro, and we condemn all devices that have for their real aim his disfranchisement for reasons of color alone, as unfair, un-American, and repugnant to the supreme law of the land." The Republican party has been in complete national power for a great many years. A plank like the one from which we have quoted is a piece of cheap insincerity, or else it means something serious and important. In effect, the Republican party declares that certain things are left undone which ought to be done toward enforcing the mandates of the Constitution.

Republican Insincerity.

Yet the Republican party, with its large majorities in both houses of Congress, pays no heed whatever to the demands of the national platform; and Republican Presidents make no corresponding proposals in their messages to the legislative branch of the Government. It is plain that so long as Republican platforms contain these planks on the race question the Southern States will feel obliged, even against their own preferences, to support the Democratic ticket in national elections. The fact is that the Republican party has not the smallest intention of undertaking to cut down the representation of the Southern States in Congress, or to change the basis of apportionment from that of the total population to that of the number of actual voters. There are a good many excellent and sincere Republicans who have persuaded themselves that the negro is being wronged, that the Constitution is violated, and that Southern representation ought to be drastically reduced. But there is not one leading Republican statesman, whether in the President's cabinet, in the Senate, or in the House, who is thinking or planning or working toward any such ends. The race problem must and will be settled in the localities where it exists. The North cannot and will not settle it for the South. Great harm to the South results from the insincerity of the Republican party in its playing with this serious question.

The Actual Status of the Negroes

The negro's theoretical rights to citizenship and political privilege cannot be taken away from him. His practical rights, which are unlimited in most of the States of the Union, are subject to severe but not impossible limitations in the Southern States. Except in about half a dozen States, negroes who are intelligent and useful citizens of their communities, and fit to exercise the suffrage, are not kept away from the polls. In the half-dozen States, the rules and regulations limiting the franchise are so enforced as to make it in practice much more difficult and much less agreeable for a colored man of education and property to vote than for a white man of even less education or property. These circumstances are due to the way in which the law is enforced, rather than to the law itself. The Republican party does not intend to try in any way to change the conditions of suffrage in the South, or to punish the South for its educational and property restrictions upon the franchise. These planks are put in the platforms for the political exigencies of the moment. They are supposed to help in the control of the Northern negro vote, and to minister to the *amour propre* of the negro delegates who come to Republican national conventions from the Southern States, and expect rewards and offices.

The Real Remedies.

The race question in the South has many difficulties; and many Southern white men are far more courageous about it in their private conversation than in their public utterances and actions. But bad as things are in some parts of the South, there is no remedy that can be applied from the outside. Better agriculture, better education, better penal systems, enforcement of anti-saloon laws, growth in thrift, and general progress in civilization will in one locality after another improve the political situation; and there is no other remedy. Certainly, the national discussion of race problems should proceed on a basis of sincerity. The Republican party is deeply to be blamed for putting irritating planks into its platform which it entirely ignores in its policies and programs at Washington.

Roosevelt's Record on the Subject.

The absurdity of the planks in the last two national platforms appears in a glaring light when one reads the following letter, made public early last month, written by President Roose-

velt to Hon. W. R. Meredith, president of the Virginia Bar Association:

> MY DEAR MR. MEREDITH: I have your letter. I do not believe there is a single individual of any consequence who seriously dreams of cutting down Southern representation, and I should have no hesitation in stating anywhere and at any time that as long as the election laws are constitutionally enforced without discrimination as to color the fear that Southern representation in Congress will be cut down is both idle and absurd. Faithfully yours,
>
> THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

Since Mr. Roosevelt has now expressed himself so frankly, it is only fair to say that the plank in the platform upon which he ran in 1904 was inserted without his knowledge, that it did not appear in the preliminary drafts of the platform, that it was not in the document when the resolutions committee thought its work completed, and that Senator Lodge, chairman of the committee, had never seen it until he happened to come to it in the course of reading the platform to the full convention. Since the South takes these things seriously, it is within bounds to ask the Republican party to consult its responsible statesmen henceforth in the drafting of its planks on the race question and on Southern representation in Congress.

The Election Statistics.

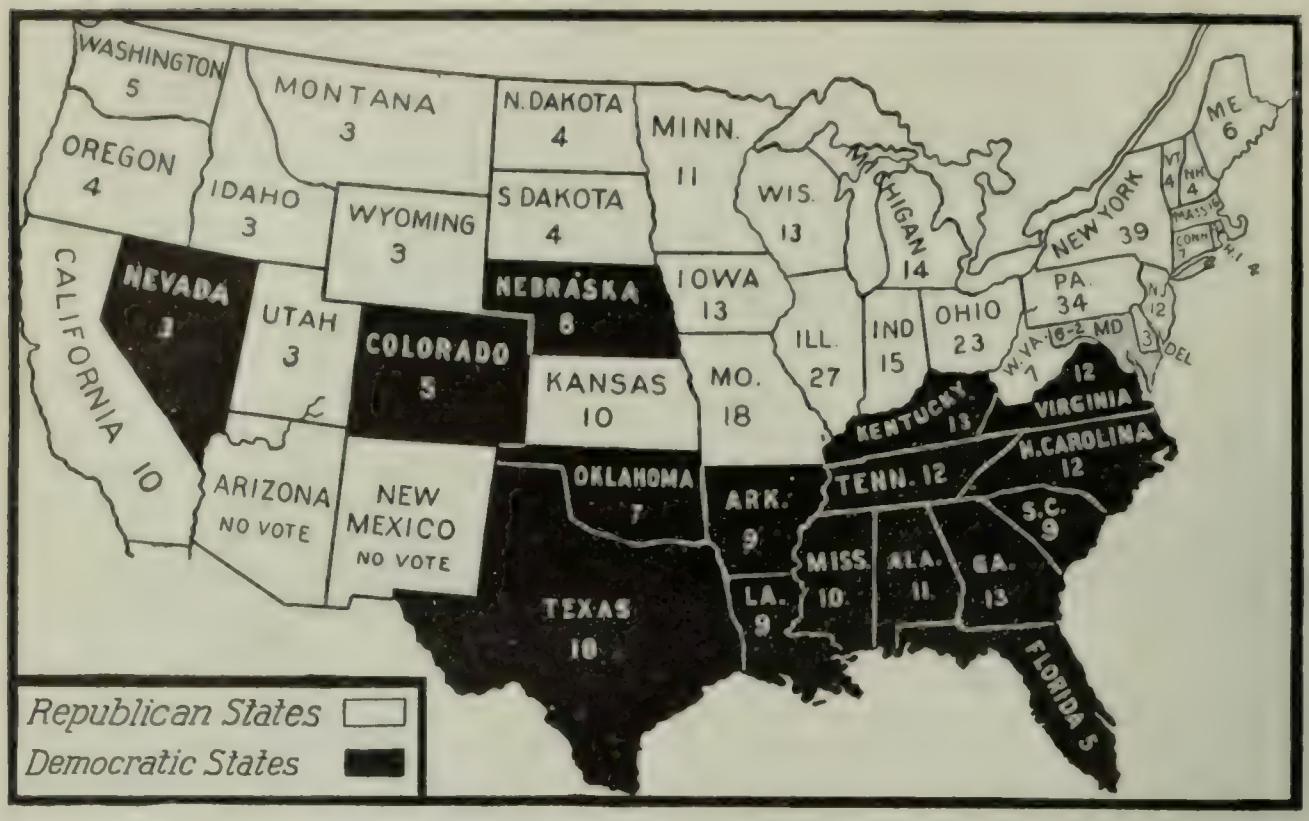
The newspapers have made the statistics of the election last month familiar to all readers, but some review and comment will be in order in these pages. There are now 483 electoral votes as against 476 four years ago. The addition is due to the seven votes accorded to the new State of Oklahoma. Mr. Taft carried all the States that were carried by Roosevelt four years ago, excepting Nebraska, Colorado, and Nevada. Apart from these three States and Oklahoma, Democratic victories in the Presidential election were confined to the States carried by Judge Parker four years ago, these being south of the Potomac and Ohio rivers and of the Missouri-Kansas line, with the exception of Maryland. In Maryland the vote was so close four years ago that the State gave Roosevelt one elector and Bryan seven. This year it gives Taft two and Bryan six. The electoral vote of no other State is divided. Roosevelt received 336 and Parker 140. Taft will have 321 and Bryan 162. The facts in detail are highly significant when the votes in different States are scrutinized. Thus, in many States, the difference between majorities for Presidential electors and those for Governor or State tickets is so wide as to show that partisanship no longer rules, and that the great American electorate votes according to its opinions as to men and issues.

New England Pluralities.

Thus the September elections in Vermont and Maine, which used to be regarded as almost infallible indications of party tendency, can no longer be relied upon as valuable forecasts for November. Maine this year gave a plurality of less than 8000 in the State election, but gave Taft about 31,000. Vermont's Republican plurality in September was under 30,000, while in November it was almost 40,000, and only a little short of the Roosevelt plurality. New Hampshire illustrates the new tendency by giving Taft almost 20,000 plurality, while electing Henry B. Quinby for the governorship by only 1000 over his competitor. In New Hampshire the old fight against railroad influence in State affairs came near turning the State over to the Democrats. In Massachusetts Taft's majority was more than 100,000, and considerably greater than Roosevelt's, but Governor Draper had only about 60,000 plurality. It should be noted that Mr. Bryan carried the city of Boston by only a very small plurality over Mr. Taft. In Connecticut, where Mr. Taft was victorious by 45,000, there was a bitter fight waged by influential Republicans against Mr. Lilley, the candidate for Governor, in consequence of which his plurality was only about 16,000.

New York and Hughes.

The whole country looked with intense interest, in the closing days of the campaign, on the contest in the State of New York. Mr. Taft's victory was great beyond the expectations of almost every one. Not only did he carry the State by more than 200,000, but he carried New York City itself. The contest between Governor Hughes and his opponent, Lieutenant-Governor Chanler, resulted in victory for Hughes by about 70,000, although Chanler carried New York City by about 60,000. Governor Hughes won deserved admiration by the directness, vigor, and frankness of his campaign, and by the convincing way in which he set forth the State issues. A month before the election it was generally believed that Mr. Chanler would win. Seldom in American history has a candidate made a finer campaign or achieved more by dint of convincing and converting the voters, than did Governor Hughes in the last two weeks of October.



THIS MAP SHOWS THE GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISION OF THE COUNTRY BETWEEN TAFT AND BRYAN.

In Taft's Own State.

In Ohio the results were mixed. In spite of Democratic assurances to the contrary, Mr. Taft carried his own State by a plurality of 70,000. The Democrats, however, elected their candidate for Governor, Hon. Judson Harmon, by about 20,000. The rest of the Republican State ticket was elected, and the Republicans will control the Legislature and elect a successor to Senator Foraker. The saloon question and other State issues affected the vote.

Indiana's Divided Results.

Indiana had seemed to be Democratic this year beyond a reasonable chance of Republican victory. The Democratic candidate for Governor, Hon. Thomas R. Marshall, was elected by 25,000 plurality, the Legislature will be Democratic, and the Democrats elected nearly all of their candidates for Congress. Yet Mr. Taft was finally pulled through by a plurality of about 10,000. This result is largely attributed to a remarkable campaign made throughout the State by Senator Beveridge in the last week or ten days of the canvass, after his return from a Western speaking tour. Many other important speakers were sent to Indiana in the last days by the National Committee, in accordance with the plan of giving the Taft campaign a strong finish everywhere in the doubtful States. Mr. Hemenway will lose his seat in the Senate, while Mr. Watson, who ran on the Republican ticket for Governor, will return to private life after finishing out his present term in Congress, where he is one of the most active of Speaker Cannon's lieutenants. It is commonly reported that Mr. John W. Kern, the defeated Democratic candidate for the Vice-Presidency, will be sent to the United States Senate. It will be remembered that Governor Hanly had, during the summer, while the campaign was in progress, called a special session of the Indiana Legislature to pass a county option bill in the interest of the anti-saloon movement. The bill was passed, and Indiana, like Ohio, will in due time, county by county, vote the saloon out of existence excepting where there are large towns. But meanwhile the opponents of this movement have helped in Indiana, as in Ohio, to elect a Democratic Governor.

Johnson for a Third Term.

In Minnesota, also, the Democrats elected Governor Johnson for a third term, although Mr. Taft carried the State by a plurality over Bryan of nearly 100,000. Apart from the Governorship the Republican State ticket was elected by substantial majorities. Governor Johnson is certainly a brilliant vote winner, and the Democrats have been recalling to themselves his last spring's boom.

The Voting in Illinois.

Even in the great State of Illinois, where the Republicans had a strong candidate for Governor in Deneen, the present incumbent, while the Democrats did not have an exceptionally strong candidate in Adlai E. Stevenson, formerly Vice-President, it so happened that Mr. Bryan ran about 120,000 votes behind Mr. Stevenson. Taft carried Illinois by 162,000 votes and Governor Deneen was re-elected by about 25,000 plurality. It is purely a speculative question, yet one would like to know whether Governor Johnson or



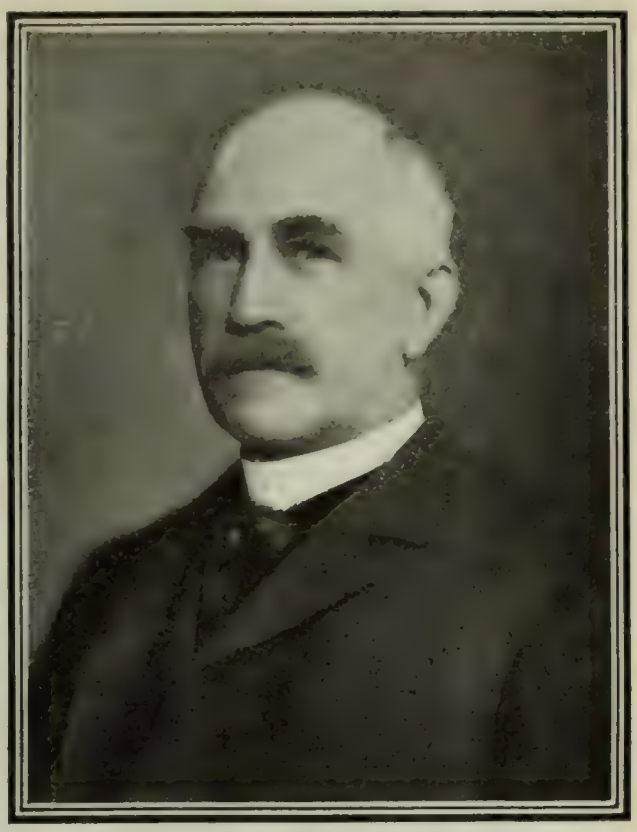
Copyright, 1908, by Pach Bros., N. Y.

GOVERNOR JOHN A. JOHNSON, OF MINNESOTA (RE-ELECTED).

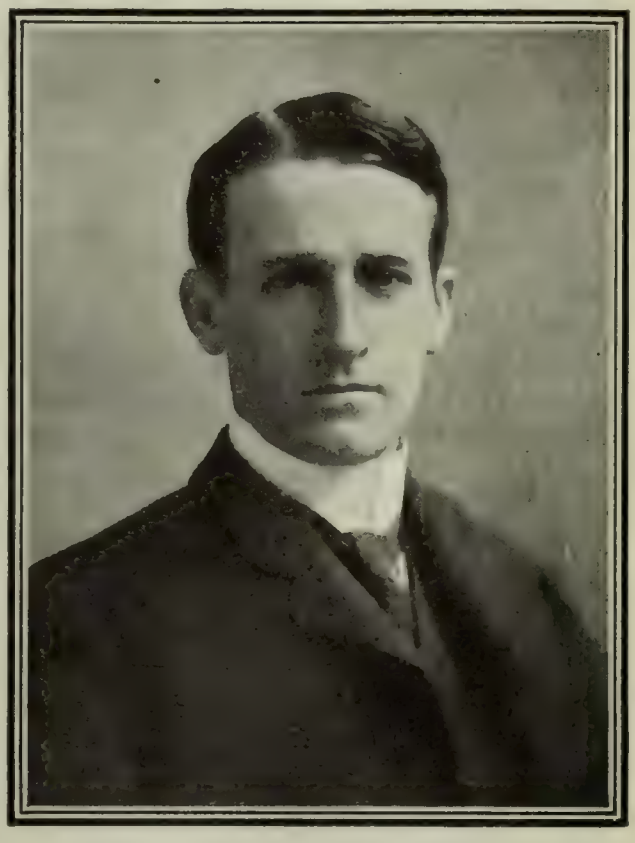
Judson Harmon would have run much behind the Democratic candidate for Governor in the State of Illinois. A many-sided and bitter fight was made against the Hon. Joseph G. Cannon, Speaker of the House, in his canvass for re-election as a Member of Congress. He carried his district triumphantly by 8000 votes.

Bryan Carries Nebraska.

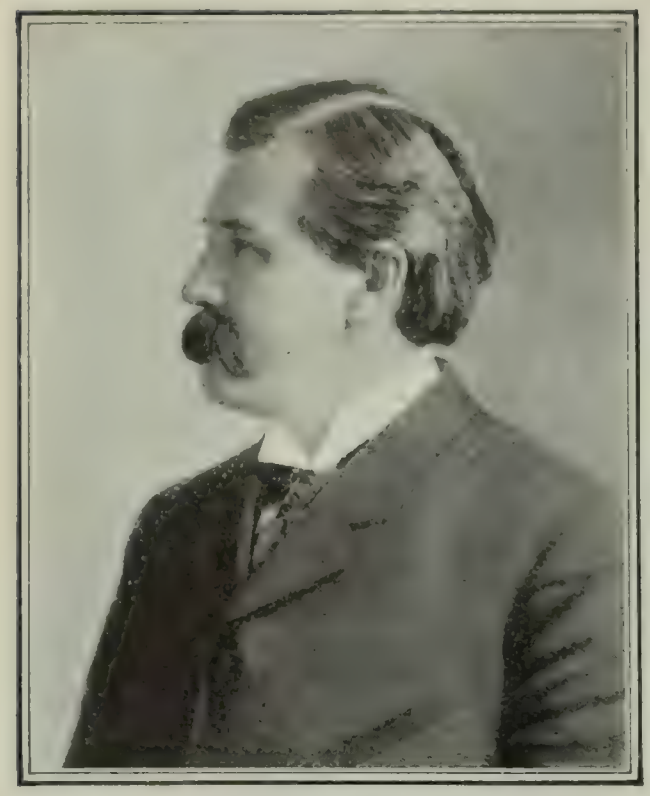
Mr. Bryan at least had the satisfaction of carrying his own State of Nebraska. He did not, however, run as strongly as Shallenberger, the Democratic candidate for Governor. Mr. Bryan's plurality was about 4500 and Shallenberger's 6900. Governor Sheldon, who was defeated for re-election, attributes the result to the opposition of the liquor inter-



HON. JUDSON HARMON.
(Governor-elect of Ohio.)



HON. HERBERT S. HADLEY.
(Governor-elect of Missouri.)



GOVERNOR CUMMINS, OF IOWA.

ests. In order to anticipate the work of the new Democratic Legislature that will assemble early in the coming year, Governor Sheldon proposed, a day or two after the election last month, to call the outgoing Legislature at once in extra session to pass a State-wide prohibition law, which could be suspended in any county by a three-fifths vote.

Missouri Mainly Republican.

The result in the State of Missouri was a general surprise. The Republicans had been quite too ready in advance to concede the State to Bryan, yet when the votes were counted it turned out that Taft had won by a plurality of about 2000. Four years ago, after the Republican National Committee had refused to help Missouri on the ground that efforts should be concentrated where there was some chance of success, the Missourians gave Roosevelt a plurality over Parker of about 25,000. The Republicans last month elected Attorney-General Herbert S. Hadley to the governorship by a plurality of perhaps 25,000 over Mr. Cowherd, thus giving Hadley the largest vote ever cast for one man in the history of the State. Recent results in Missouri show how imperfect primary election laws and systems can be. There had been a contest before the people of Missouri between Governor Folk and Senator Stone for the seat in the Senate that Mr. Stone now occupies and that will be vacant on the 4th of March. For many months the Democratic voters of the State had been listening to the rival candidates and their friends.

How Folk Wins and Loses.

The voters were to choose the candidate on election day. Governor Folk carried more than two-thirds of the legislative districts, but Senator Stone won out by virtue of the large vote that was massed in the primaries in the cities of St. Louis and Kansas City. The Legislature is Democratic by a plurality of six votes. It will probably elect the Democratic caucus nominee to the Senate. Although the members of the Legislature have the legal authority to make their own choice, and a large majority of them would probably prefer Folk, it is expected that they will obey the mandate of the people in the primaries and continue Senator Stone in office. The Republicans, who have nearly half of the Legislature, would probably prefer Folk, and a clear majority of the Democratic members are Folk men. Less than one-fourth of the members of the Legislature are for Stone as their first choice and preference, yet through the queer working of a primary system that is superimposed upon a party system the country is to be deprived of the services of Mr. Folk at Washington.

Cummins Wins in Iowa.

In Iowa, as in Missouri, the parties on election day voted as to their preference for United States Senator. The Republican contest was between Governor Cummins and ex-Congressman Lacey. Governor Cummins won by a large majority, and he will undoubtedly be chosen by the Legislature to fill the place in the Senate made vacant by the death of the venerable Mr. Allison. Mr. Taft, meanwhile, carried Iowa by nearly 60,000 plurality over Bryan, and Hon. B. F. Carroll was elected Governor on the Republican ticket by a majority of about 55,000. In spite of general Republican success in Iowa, Hon. W. P. Hepburn, prominent in Congress as the chairman of the Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce, was defeated by a very close vote.

Various Results.

North Dakota and Montana, like Ohio, Indiana, and Minnesota, elected Democratic governors while giving their electoral votes for Taft. Thus the growth of independent voting warns both parties to give the people their best possible candidates. Even in

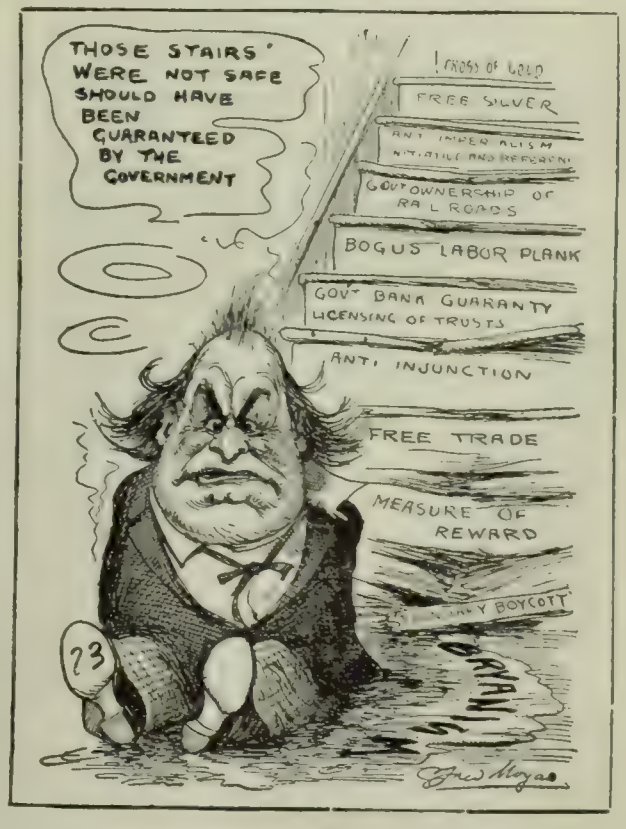
Texas, which gave Bryan a normal Democratic majority of 167,000, the Democratic Governor, Mr. Campbell, came very nearly being defeated by his Republican opponent, Mr. Simpson. In Kansas, where State issues were stubbornly fought on their merits, Republican local victories were not very far behind the Taft plurality, and Mr. Bristow will be elected to the Senate. The Pacific Coast States gave Taft very substantial pluralities, though in all cases these were much smaller than those given to Roosevelt four years ago. Of the majorities for Bryan in the Southern States, it is enough to say that they ran last month almost the same as for Parker four years ago. The only marked exception was in Georgia, where the Democratic plurality was about 30,000, as against nearly twice that number in 1904. The vote in Maryland this year, as four years ago, was exceedingly close, so that, through a curious habit that some voters have of scratching a name here or there from the list of their party's electoral candidates, two of the Maryland electors will be Republican and six will be Democrats. Kentucky at the last State election had gone Republican, but it gave Bryan last month a plurality of about 12,000 over Taft, and it gave a like plurality to Parker over Roosevelt. The State is, however, close enough to be regarded as debatable ground henceforth. In the election of a new Congress and of State and local tickets almost everywhere there were many surprises and many incidents of significance. The Republicans will control the next Congress by a majority somewhat reduced, but large enough for working purposes. Independent voters are vastly encouraged by the evidences they can show that the voters are no longer the willing followers of party leaders.

Weakness of Minor Parties.

The minor parties did not poll as many votes as they had expected. Mr. Chafin, the Prohibitionist candidate, expected to profit by the tremendous anti-saloon movement that is sweeping the country, but the third party Prohibitionists have been standing aloof with a barren theory while the real temperance workers and actual Prohibitionists have been abolishing the saloons without leaving their regular political parties. The Socialist vote showed decided gains, but did not reach the total of 1,000,000 that was predicted. The real object of the Hearst Independence party seemed to be the defeat of Bryan. The vote for Hisgen and Graves was small, but the work of Mr. Hearst and his associates undoubtedly threw a great many votes from Bryan to Taft. Mr. Shearn, who ran for Governor of New York on the Hearst ticket, fought the Democrats with such effect as doubtless to have strengthened materially the vote for Hughes.

Bryan and His Future.

Mr. Bryan is a cheerful and good-tempered loser, who has demonstrated once more his matchless talents as a platform speaker and tireless campaigner, but who has also made it perfectly clear that the people of the United States, while entertaining a more friendly feeling toward him than ever before, do not believe him to be the best man for the Presidency. He was in a position to control the Democratic convention and to dictate its platform, but the people do not know him as a man of judgment and of executive ability, and this year there were no issues apart from the candidates. In 1896 he made a gallant fight on the mistaken issue of free silver. In 1900 he challenged McKinley and the Republicans on the issues of the war with Spain, and the country decided of necessity that McKinley, Root, John Hay, Taft, Roosevelt, and the Republican leaders must complete the business they had entered upon with success and prestige.



SHALL THE POEPLE RULE? SURE.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



Photograph by Brown Bros., N. Y.

PRESIDENT-ELECT TAFT, WITH GOVERNOR HUGHES AND OTHER DISTINGUISHED PUBLIC MEN, AT THE UNVEILING OF THE MONUMENT ERECTED IN HONOR OF THE "PRISON SHIP MARTYRS" IN BROOKLYN, N. Y., LAST MONTH.

In 1904 Mr. Bryan did not wish to run against Roosevelt, and in 1908 it was too late. He had assumed positions which made the country distrust most the soundness of his judgment at a time when the business exigencies of the nation required hard sense and trained judgment in the office of the chief executive. The campaign leaves Mr. Bryan in the position of a very distinguished American public man, with friends in both parties, but with no likelihood of ever running again for the Presidency. If the Democrats should win two years hence Mr. Bryan would undoubtedly be sent to the Senate, where his honesty, public spirit, wide acquaintance with men and affairs throughout the country, and great oratorical talent would give him a place of honor and prominence.

Roosevelt's Plans and Future.

The election completely vindicated President Roosevelt's opinion that Mr. Taft was the right man for the Republican nomination. The country showed that it perfectly understood the nature of the President's efforts toward the selection and choice of his successor. Mr. Roosevelt was engaged last month, among many other public matters, in completing his last annual message, which will be sent to Congress when it assembles on Monday, December 7. Mr. Taft will be inaugurated on March 4, and Mr. Roosevelt will before the end of that month be on the high seas, for a long absence in the heart of Africa. Preparations for his great hunting trip and study of animal life in the African continent have been going forward for more than half a year; and the President is already better informed about things relating to such an expedition than are most of the people who have been giving him suggestions and advice out of their own experience. President Eliot has definitely resigned from the presidency of Harvard, to take effect in the near future, and some of those interested in Mr. Roosevelt's career have thought of the Harvard position as a fitting one for him. But most Americans expect to see Mr. Roosevelt back in public life at no remote period. At one time there was some reason to think that he would leave the Presidency to take a seat in the Senate as Mr. Platt's successor, but on many accounts it has seemed best to him to have a complete change,—and what for him will be a period of rest and vacation, though of strenuous activity,—far away from the cares of public office. The next few

weeks, with Congress in session, will be full of intense public activity for the retiring President. Then he will pass off the American scene and be completely away for the better part of two years. If his sojourn in Europe should not be prolonged, he will return in the midsummer, or a little after, of 1910. Then will come the New York State elections, and the newspapers are already slating him for the next Senate vacancy, which will occur two years from March upon the retirement of Mr. Depew. Mrs. Roosevelt will join her husband at Khartoum as he comes out of the Sudan, and will accompany him to Italy and then to France and England. He is to make an address and receive academic honors at Oxford, and has a similar appointment at the Sorbonne, in Paris. He will bring from Africa, besides specimens for the National Museum, ample notes and data for a book that will doubtless be one of the best he has ever written.



MR. ROOT AT HIS DESK IN THE STATE DEPARTMENT.

Mr. Root for the Senate.

Meanwhile, it seems to have been definitely decided by the Republicans of New York to send the Hon. Elihu Root to the Senate as Mr. Platt's successor. It had been hoped and expected that Mr. Root would remain in Mr. Taft's cabinet as Secretary of State. His withdrawal from the post he now occupies would be a misfortune to Mr. Taft and to the country. Only those who are very closely informed can fully appreciate the high character and inestimable value of the services Mr. Root has rendered his country while in the cabinets of McKinley and Roosevelt. He has every qualification that could enter into the make-up of an ideal Senator, but the State Department better fits his temperament and his methods of working. Mr. Metcalf, Secretary of the Navy, resigned last month, on account of illness and other personal reasons, and the Assistant Secretary, Mr. Newberry, was at once appointed to fill the vacancy. The newspapers have been amusing their readers with guesses as to the organization of Mr. Taft's cabinet. Although some of the guesses are probably accurate, it will be in better taste to await Mr. Taft's own announcements. The President-elect traveled hard and spoke much during the campaign, and last month he was resting and playing golf at Hot Springs, Va. He will spend a large part of the winter at Augusta, Ga. He will have his inaugural address to prepare and many appointments to consider in advance. The plans for the inauguration will be in charge of Mr. Frank H. Hitchcock, who managed the campaign as chairman of the National Committee, and whose efforts have been heartily appreciated by Mr. Taft.

Lawlessness and Crime.

Last month gave many startling instances of the spirit of lawlessness that prevails in the United States, and particularly of the evils that result from the habit of carrying firearms.



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Ex-Senator E. W. Carmack. Francis J. Heney. Postmaster Morgan, of New York.

THREE VICTIMS LAST MONTH OF ASSASSINS' BULLETS.

Among the notable cases was the assassination of ex-Senator Carmack, of Tennessee, the shooting down of the Postmaster of New York (who will recover), and the attempt to kill the distinguished San Francisco Prosecutor, Francis J. Heney, while trying one of the cases against Ruef, the indicted boss..



Photograph by Brown Bros. N. Y

MR. JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER GOING TO TESTIFY AS A WITNESS AT THE NEW YORK CUSTOM HOUSE, LAST MONTH, IN THE GOVERNMENT'S CASE AGAINST THE STANDARD OIL COMPANY.

Some Important Canadian Topics.

We Americans are becoming more interested each year in the political and economic progress of our neighbor, the Dominion of Canada. Up to within quite recently the people of the United States, having complete faith in the ability and intention of our Canadian neighbors to manage their affairs in the progressive, orderly fashion that characterizes the development of English-speaking peoples all over the world, had not found much of deep interest in "Canadian news." The rapid opening up of the great West of the Dominion to industry and agriculture, however,—in both of which phases Americans have taken a leading part,—has made Canada seem nearer and bulk larger in the news of the day. This REVIEW has always recognized not only the economic and industrial potentiality of Canada, but has devoted more space than perhaps any other American magazine to articles on Canadian topics. Two highly important but comparatively unfamiliar phases of Canadian national growth are treated this month. The wonderful resources and possibilities of Quebec,—"Britain's French Empire in America" (see page 727), are set forth in one of our features, while the tremendous and ever-increasing importance of Canada as a producer of grain is discussed in a "Leading Article" (page 743), reproduced from a Canadian magazine.



A TORONTO COMMENT ON THE CANADIAN ELECTION.
Sir Wilfrid will now finish his work on the transcontinental railway.
From the *Globe* (Toronto).



SIR WILFRID LAURIER, PREMIER OF CANADA, AS HE APPEARS TO-DAY.

The Dominion General Election.

The national event of most far-reaching importance occurring in the Dominion during the past few weeks was the general election (on October 26) for members of the new House of Commons. As already intimated in these pages, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the Premier, conducted his campaign for re-election on the general issue of: "Let the Liberal party complete its big work for a bigger Canada." The result of the elections was that the government was sustained by a large majority,—somewhat less, however, than in the preceding Parliament. The ministerial majority over all opponents will be fifty. All the ministers were re-elected except Mr. Templeman, of Victoria. Mr. R. L. Borden, the Conservative leader, was elected to two seats in Halifax, and the Premier himself was victorious in two "ridings" in Quebec. Sir Wilfrid regards the general result as the answer of the people of the Dominion to the charges of corruption in office made so liberally by the opposition against his administration. There can be no doubt that a great deal of administrative corruption and favoritism did exist, but it was exaggerated by the Conservatives, who themselves had nothing, apparently, in the way of a constructive policy to offer the



GENERAL JOSÉ MIGUEL GOMEZ, THE NEWLY ELECTED PRESIDENT OF CUBA.

people. It may be said that the election was a personal triumph for Sir Wilfrid Laurier rather than for his party. He will now consider himself in possession of a popular mandate to finish the railroads and other large projects undertaken by his administration. These include the national transcontinental railway, the Hudson Bay line, and the Georgian Bay Canal. Sir Wilfrid is now in his sixty-eighth year, and has announced that he will at the end of the present term retire from active political life. His career is one that appeals to the imagination of Americans as well as Canadians, and the people of the United States can find no selfish interest in his great plans to prevent our wishing him and his country even greater prosperity and progress than have marked their past.

Gomez Elected President of Cuba.

Cuba also has had a general election, the second in its history. The event passed off quietly on November 14. As a result of the balloting throughout the island, General José Miguel Gomez and Señor Alfredo Zayas, the candidates of the Liberal party for President and Vice-President, were elected by a large majority over the candidates of the Conservative party, General Mario Menocal and Dr. Rafael Montoro. The Liberals carried every province in the island, thus bringing to General Gomez the entire 107 electoral votes. The election was interpreted by the people generally as a verdict of popular approval of the revolution of 1906, which overthrew the well-meaning but somewhat wavering administration of the late Tomas Estrada Palma. The American provisional governor, Mr. Magoon, has informed President Roosevelt that the elections passed off without incident, and that he regards the order and smoothness which characterized the balloting as an excellent test of the ability of the Cuban people for self-government.

Results of the Election.

General Gomez, the President-elect, is fifty-five years of age, and a native of Santa Clara province. He was a rich planter during the Spanish domination and a patriotic warrior for Cuban freedom. At the close of the Spanish-American War he was elected a member of the Cuban Assembly. He is a man of the people. In the words of a Cuban journalist, "as a citizen he is a man of active patriotism and austere virtue. He has no vices. He has always lived modestly, and he has



DR. ALFREDO ZAYAS, THE NEWLY ELECTED VICE-PRESIDENT OF CUBA.

no millions to leave to his sons." Señor Zayas, the Vice-President-elect, is generally regarded as a lawyer of unusual ability, perhaps a more dominating personality than General Gomez. He formerly led a revolt

in the Liberal party, but his followers were propitiated by his nomination for the Vice-Presidential office. The election laws of Cuba are practically the same as those in force in the United States, and were introduced into Cuba by Colonel Crowder, of the American army of occupation, although it should be remembered that the military forces of the United States have had no hand whatsoever in the conduct of the elections. An interesting fact of the election, which will have an important bearing on the political future of the Cuban Republic, is that provision of the law which makes mandatory proportional representation in the House of Representatives. Under its provisions the members of the elective house will be divided between the two parties in exact proportion to the popular vote cast. This assures a Conservative membership of more than one-third in the lower house, a salutary check upon any tendency to abuse of power by the Liberals. The provincial election in Porto Rico, for members of the House of Delegates, was held on November 3, and resulted in a sweeping victory for the Unionist party, which upholds the aspiration of the islanders for full American citizenship.

The "Out of Works" in England.

Britain's home problem of most pressing interest and concern during the past fall and summer months has been what to do with the unemployed. It was estimated that at the end of October there were nearly half a million men out of work in the United Kingdom, and 250,000 paupers and outdoor dependents in London alone. British business conditions appear to be very unfavorable, and calls upon the government for aid have been increasingly frequent. The propaganda of political socialism is making rapid progress in the United Kingdom. Premier Asquith has announced that the government's plan of relief, in addition to the old-age pension law, contemplates a fund of $1,500,000 to be paid directly to the unemployed, while the Admiralty is giving out orders for the construction of fourteen new warships of an aggregate cost of $12,000,000 several months earlier than had originally been intended. Mr. John Burns, President of the Local Government Board, while admitting that the conditions of unemployment are worse in England than in Germany, is opposed to the "Laborite" and Socialist methods of providing relief. He advocates the organization of "co-ordinated government and municipal work" and the "repression of the sentimental encouragement of the wasters," the latter referring to the vast sums of money spent by workingmen in times of prosperity for "unproductive amusements." Other interesting developments in Britain's domestic history of the past few weeks have been the insistent campaign of the suffragettes, who have invaded the floor of Parliament; and the resignations of Lord Tweedmouth, Lord President of the Council, and the Marquis of Ripon, Lord of the Privy Seal.

Britain's Naval Supremacy.

When the British Parliament resumed its sessions on October 12 there was evident a sudden and marked increase in the popularity of the Liberal government, due chiefly to the resolute stand taken by the Asquith ministry on the Balkan question. As the weeks passed this prestige of the Liberals increased, until November 12, when Premier Asquith announced the naval policy of his administration, and then the approving response from the country indicated that the Liberals stood as high in popular estimation as ever in their history. What Great Britain means by the two-power standard of naval strength, Mr. Asquith declared, amid tumultuous cheers from both sides of the House, is "a preponderance of 10 per cent. over the combined strength in capital ships of the two next strongest naval powers." Developments in the Balkans and the sensational impression made by the *Daily Telegraph* interview with the German Kaiser have led the administration, Mr. Asquith declared (in a speech on November 9 at the banquet of Sir George Wyatt Truscott, the new Lord Mayor of London), to see the necessity of making certain facts clear to the people of Great Britain.

> Every foreign power knows that if we have established, as we have, and if we mean to maintain, as we do, indisputable supremacy on the seas, it is not for the purpose of aggression or adventure, but that we may fulfil the elementary duty we owe the empire to uphold it beyond reach and beyond the risk of successful attack from the outside on our commerce, our industry, and our homes.

Events of the month in Britain's colonies have included,—beside the elections in the Dominion of Canada and Newfoundland already referred to,—a change of cabinet in Australia, resulting in a triumph of the Liberal party under the leadership of Mr. Fisher; and the celebration amid impressive ceremonies at Jodhpur of the fiftieth anniversary of the crown administration of India



PRINCE VON BÜLOW, THE GERMAN CHANCELLOR.
(Listening to an interpellation in the Reichstag.)

(half a century ago the government was taken from the East India Company).

A Sensational Interview with the Kaiser.

Since the foundation of the German Empire no such dramatic session of the Reichstag has been witnessed as when, on November 10, the deputies of United Germany assembled to sit in judgment on the Kaiser for the "blazing indiscretions" of his "personal rule," and on the imperial Chancellor, Prince von Bülow, for his failure to represent to the monarch the real sentiments of the German people. The irritations of Germans of all shades of political belief against the arbitrary, erratic utterances of Kaiser Wilhelm on all sorts of subjects, particularly on foreign relations, had been accumulating for a decade. The last straw was the highly sensational interview granted by his German Majesty to a "representative Englishman," as yet anonymous, and published with the imperial permission in the London *Daily Telegraph* on October 28. This truly remarkable interview, which has been briefly summarized and commented upon in the American press, but not published in full, was so characteristic of the entire temperament and policy of the German Emperor that we quote the significant portions of it here, directly from the columns of the *Daily Telegraph*.

Is Germany Really Hostile to England?

The interview which was characterized by the writer as a "calculated indiscretion" was submitted by the Kaiser to the Chancellor, and by him passed on to the German Foreign Office. No objection as to its publication was made by the German officials, who added that the interview was intended as a message to the English people. The manuscript, therefore, was returned to England with permission to print. The next day it appeared in the *Daily Telegraph*. The substance of all the Kaiser's words in this interview is his evidently sincere desire to convince the English people that he is really friendly to them and that the misunderstandings which have marked the intercourse of the two peoples during the last few years have been due almost entirely to English suspicion. What has come over you English, asks the Kaiser, "that you are so completely given over to suspicions quite unworthy of a great nation? What more can I do than I have done . . . to show that my heart is set on peace and that it is one of my dearest wishes to live on the best of terms with England. . . . How can I convince the nation against its will?" In this task, he continued, he finds the majority of his people against him.

> The prevailing sentiment of large sections of the middle and lower classes of my own people is not friendly to England. I am, therefore, so to speak, in the minority in my own land, but it is a minority of the best elements, just as it is in England respecting Germany.

Did the Kaiser Help England in the Boer War?

Referring to his speech last year at the Guildhall, in London, in which he expressed his earnest desire for peace, the Kaiser explained in detail his attitude toward England and the Boers during the war. It is commonly believed in England that during that war Germany was hostile to her, the Kaiser admits. Here follow his exact words which have aroused so much indignation in Holland, France, and Russia:

> German opinion undoubtedly was hostile, bitterly hostile. The press was hostile; private opinion was hostile. But what of official Germany? Let my critics ask themselves what brought to a sudden stop and, indeed, to absolute collapse, the European tour of the Boer delegates who were striving to obtain European intervention? They were fêted in Holland; France gave them a rapturous welcome. They wished to come to Berlin, where the German people would have crowned them with flowers. But when they asked me to receive them,—I refused. The agitation immediately died away,

and the delegation returned empty-handed. Was that, I ask, the action of a secret enemy? Again, when the struggle was at its height, the German Government was invited by the governments of France and Russia to join with them in calling upon England to put an end to the war. The moment had come, they said, not only to save the Boer republics, but also to humiliate England to the dust. What was my reply? I said that so far from Germany joining in any concerted European action to put pressure upon England and bring about her downfall, Germany would always keep aloof from politics that could bring her into complications with a sea power like England. Posterity will one day read the exact terms of the telegram,—now in the archives of Windsor Castle,—in which I informed the sovereign of England of the answer I had returned to the powers which then sought to compass her fall. Englishmen who now insult me by doubting my word should know what were my actions in the hour of their adversity.

Nor was that all. Just at the time of your Black Week, in the December of 1899, when disasters followed one another in rapid succession, I received a letter from Queen Victoria, my revered grandmother, written in sorrow and affliction, and bearing manifest traces of the anxieties which were preying upon her mind and health. I at once returned a sympathetic reply. Nay, I did more. I bade one of my officers procure for me as exact an account as he could obtain of the number of combatants in South Africa on both sides, and of the actual position of the opposing forces. With the figures before me, I worked out what I considered to be the best plan of campaign under the circumstances and submitted it to my general staff for their criticism. Then I dispatched it to England, and that document, likewise, is among the state papers at Windsor Castle, awaiting the serenely impartial verdict of history. And, as a matter of curious coincidence, let me add that the plan which I formulated ran very much on the same lines as that which was actually adopted by Lord Roberts and carried by him into successful operation. Was that, I repeat, the act of one who wished England ill? Let Englishmen be just and say!

The Kaiser repudiated any intention of making trouble in Europe over the Morocco matter, and contended that Germany's recognition of Mulai Hafid as Sultan was regular and in the interests of peace. In conclusion he referred to the "Yellow Peril," to the growth of Asiatic commerce and Germany's part therein, and justified the increase which is being made in the German navy.

German Indignation.

A storm of criticism, protest and indignation, in the press of almost all Europe, greeted the publication of this interview. The German journals of all shades of opinion, and German public men of all political parties, not only indignantly repudiated the attitude of the Emperor, but openly questioned the veracity of his statements. One of the leading conservative papers, representing that section of the empire which usually follows the Kaiser with devoted blindness, voiced the sentiment of the country when it said: "It [the publication of the interview] has united our foes, lowered our prestige, and shattered belief abroad in the sincerity, sanctity and earnestness of our foreign policy." Even the Kaiser's favorite newspaper, the *Tägliche Rundschau*, refers to the interview as an "evidence of the Emperor's theatrical policy." The only defense attempted was that of the Chancellor himself, who contended



KAISER WILHELM AS A GERMAN CITIZEN.
(From a photograph taken early last month.)

that the Kaiser merely stated what he and the leading German statesmen have often declared in public speeches.

General European Criticism.

In England, France, Holland, Russia, and Japan, the press comment and the utterances of public men were in direct challenge of the truth of many of the Emperor's statements and in unsparing condemnation of his utterances. The English attitude is set forth in the London *Daily News* in these words:

> The Emperor asks why his repeated offers of friendship are weighed and scrutinized with jealous and mistrustful eyes. We will tell his Majesty why. It is because the actions of his Ministers do not harmonize with his own words. It is because experience has taught us that sentiment in high places is not always a safe guaranty. It is because Germany has made us look closely at the logic of facts.

The view of Continental Europe is summed up in the double-leaded "warning" editorial in the influential *Novoye Vremya,* of St. Petersburg, which calls upon Europe to "take the Kaiser's words as an absolute test not only of German respect for international obligations in the past, but of every word Germany may say or write in the future."

Dramatic Scene in the Reichstag.

The National Liberal leader of the opposition in the Reichstag, Herr Ernst Bassermann, in a brilliant speech immediately following the publication of the famous interview, recounted the "indiscretions" of the Kaiser which during the past decade have lowered the prestige of Germany, increased her problems at home, and threatened more than once to involve her in a foreign war. He enumerated the famous Kruger telegram, the "mailed-fist episode" in China, the visit to Tangiers which precipitated the Moroccan trouble, the letter to Lord Tweedmouth about the British navy, the "Tower-Hill American Ambassador muddle," the "Illustrious Second" telegram after Algeciras, which alienated Austrian and Italian sympathies, and the series of injudicious interviews, the *Daily Telegraph* one and the other granted to an American journalist, and recently suppressed by the *Century Magazine* at the request, it is said, of the German Government. "These blunders of personal rule," said Herr Bassermann, "have made Germany ridiculous in the eyes of the world." Herr Paul Singer, the leader of the Socialists, in an amazingly frank speech, declared that the Kaiser should be tried for treason.

Bulow's Defense to the Deputies.

More significant and far-reaching, however, than all the domestic and foreign comment on the Kaiser's words to England has been the serious, frank discussion in the press and in the Parliament, which have already made the event a landmark in the development of constitutionalism in Germany. The German people, if we may believe the sentiments uttered by their leaders and the editorials in their influential newspapers, have seriously determined upon a demand for absolute ministerial responsibility to Parliament. Immediately upon the reassembling of the Reichstag a series of earnest interpellations was launched at Chancellor von Bülow, who had offered his resignation to the Emperor, but had been prevailed upon to remain in office. Prince Bülow had one of the severest experiences of his life in attempting to explain and defend not only the Kaiser's action in being interviewed, but the supineness of the German Foreign Office, including himself, in permitting the interview to be published. His explanations that he did not himself read it, and that it was perfunctorily passed through the departments of the Foreign Office,—"whose members are dreadfully overworked,"—elicited severe criticism from all groups in the Parliament, and precipitated the demand not only for a future check upon the Kaiser's impulsive interference in the foreign policies of the empire, but a demand for the reorganization of the Foreign Office itself. In the course of his speech the Chancellor made the following declaration, which was taken as a virtual promise by the Kaiser to the Reichstag, and was warmly applauded:

> The discovery that the publication of the interview had not had the intended effect in England and had caused deep anxiety in Germany will, I feel persuaded, lead the Kaiser to observe in the future that reserve in his conversations which is necessary for a consistent imperial policy and the authority of the crown. Were it not so neither I nor my successors could accept responsibility therefor.

Bulow's Audience at Potsdam.

The deputies from Bavaria, Wurtemburg, and the other South German states, always jealous of the domination of Prussia, demanded some assurance that in future the Kaiser should speak only through his Minister. In this demand they were joined by the almost unanimously expressed sentiment of the country in press and public utterance. The monarch, who was off on a hunting trip, was kept informed of the proceedings

of the Parliament by telegraph. On his return to Berlin, on November 17, however, the Chancellor had a long interview with him, during which he set forth the feelings of the German people under these heads:

First, that the Foreign Affairs Committee of the Bundesrath, or Federal Council, is firm in the opinion that it would be wiser for the Emperor not to express views affecting the relations of the empire with other countries except through his responsible ministers. Second, that the entire Reichstag assented to the declarations made by the speakers that the Emperor had exceeded his constitutional prerogatives in private discussion with foreigners concerning Germany's attitude on controverted questions. Third, that the feeling of the people at large on this matter was accurately indicated by the press of the country.

Gravity of the Situation.

It was significant of the truth of Herr Bassermann's remark, "The Kaiser has lost 75 per cent. of his influence in Germany within two weeks," that the non-Prussian states should have decided to convoke the Bundesrath (the Federal Council of the empire), a body which has met only once in twelve years and which, composed as it is of representatives from the federal states of the empire, only takes decisive action in case of imperial emergency. This body, summoned by Bavaria and Saxony, met in the middle of November for the purpose (a leading Berlin journal informs us) of "curbing Prussian arrogance and sharply restricting the Emperor's political functions." According to the German constitution, this body is supreme in matters of international relations, and the significance of its deliberations at this time cannot be overrated.

The Kaiser Yields.

The Chancellor's meeting with the Kaiser at the new palace at Potsdam was awaited with intense anxiety by the German people. In a long interview Prince Bülow gave the monarch a straightforward and unvarnished statement of how the German people regard his interviews and other personal interventions in affairs of state. The Kaiser yielded to the wishes of the nation, and permitted a statement, rather indefinite in phraseology, it must be confessed, to be published in the official gazette of the empire, the *Reichsanzeiger*. The communication was as follows:

Heedless of the exaggerations of public criticism, which are regarded by him as incorrect, his Majesty perceives that his principal imperial task is to insure the stability of the policies of the empire, under the guardianship of constitutional responsibilities. In conformity therewith his Majesty the Emperor approves the Chancellor's utterances in the Reichstag and assures Prince von Bülow of his continued confidence.

What Will the German People Gain?

Will real responsible government result from the deep impression made by the Kaiser's "indiscretion"? Will the monarch himself adhere to the promise implied, if not explicitly stated, in the statement wrung from him by his Chancellor at the command of the people to hereafter limit his political action by constitutional methods? The impression seems to be gaining ground in Germany that while the Kaiser's surrender was a victory over himself, the terms in which this surrender was announced really afford no guaranty that hereafter the impulsive, autocratic sovereign will discontinue his policy of personal rule, or that the Chancellor will not remain, as heretofore, responsible to the monarch only. It may be too soon to predict any fundamental changes in the constitutional procedure of the empire. Despite, however, the fact that all Germany is dissatisfied with the result of the conference between the Emperor and his Chancellor, a beginning has undoubtedly been made in the direction of a real constitutional government. The Reichstag has in its hand a powerful weapon to enforce the popular demand in the new Imperial Finance Reform bill, introduced in the Reichstag on November 19, to cover the immense deficit in the imperial revenues. The gravity of Germany's financial problem is set forth on another page this month, in the words of Finance Minister Dr. Sydow himself.

"The Casablanca Incident."

The influence of the Clémenceau ministry has been increased at home and the prestige of the French Republic vastly improved abroad by the dignified and firm stand taken by the Foreign Office at Paris last month in the difference with Germany over what the newspapers are calling the Casablanca incident. This apparently trivial incident, which, however, might have involved the two countries in actual war, arose out of the desertion from the Foreign Legion in Morocco (an organization made up of all nationalities fighting in the French service in Africa) of several Germans, who, on their way to seek refuge in the German consulate at Fez, were seized by a French military patrol and imprisoned awaiting trial. This incident, calling merely for investigation and the exchange of ordinary diplomatic correspondence, was

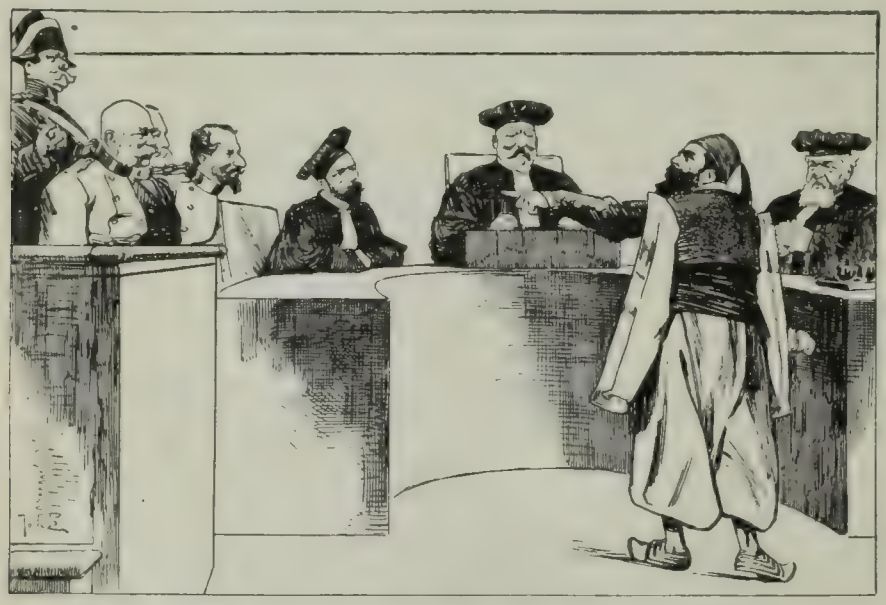
in a fair way to be settled amicably when Prince von Radolin, German Ambassador at Paris, suddenly (on October 29, the day after the publication of the Kaiser's *Daily Telegraph* interview) demanded from the French Foreign Office not only that there be mutual expressions of regret and the reference of the case to arbitration, which was France's proposal, but that France apologize first and then submit to arbitration.

Germany Yields to France.

This demand on the part of the German Ambassador was generally attributed throughout Europe to an endeavor to divert German attention from the criticism of the Kaiser by "a foreign diversion against France." This time, however, the republic courteously but firmly declined to permit a repetition of the circumstances which some years ago resulted in the forced resignation of her Foreign Minister Delcassé. As soon as it became evident that England and Russia were supporting the French attitude and would continue to do so to the extent of ships and soldiers, the German Foreign Office abandoned its demand and, just as suddenly as before, again changed its course and agreed to accept France's proposal and submit the matter to arbitration. Serious consequences, however, were really imminent. Indeed, early in November the situation had become so grave that Premier Clémenceau actually discussed with General Lacroix, commander-in-chief of the French army, and General Picquart, Minister of War, the immediate mobilization of the army on the eastern frontier. Meanwhile Italy has joined Russia and England in giving its adherence to the Franco-Spanish note regarding the conditional recognition of Mulai Hafid as Sultan of Morocco.

No "Concert" Yet on the Balkans.

The great powers of Europe have not yet come to an agreement over the holding of an international conference to settle the latest phases of the Balkan problem. During late October and all through November negotiations between Turkey and Bulgaria and Turkey and Austria were continued, with no definite results. Under pressure brought by the great powers, both Turkey and Bulgaria have apparently ceased their warlike demonstrations, and a less belligerent spirit is evident on both sides. The fourteenth national Bulgarian Assembly, the Sobranje, convened on October 28. The debates in this democratic, one-chambered Parliament resulted in an agreement to disband the reserves and to make compensation to Turkey to the extent of the Eastern Rumelian tribute (approximately $10,000,000). The Turko-Austrian negotiations for the annexation by the Hapsburg monarchy of the two provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina have not been so successful. Kiamil Pasha, the Turkish Grand Vizier, has asked the powers to determine the "juridical status" of the two provinces and, in the event of Austria's action being legalized, that the Austro-Hungarian Government assume that part of the Turkish national debt which had formerly been deemed the proper share of the two provinces. This the government at Vienna has vigorously refused to do. Meanwhile Austria consents to a conference to consider the entire question, provided that her right and title to the two provinces be not called in question. It seems certain that the conference will simply legalize the *status quo*.



THE COMING BALKAN CONFERENCE.—AN EXTRACT FROM THE MINUTES.

"*Whereas*, Abdul Hamid is legal owner of Bosnia, Herzegovina, Bulgaria, and Crete; and

"*Whereas*, The accused have invaded and taken possession of these lands, and thereby violated the plainest principles of equity;

"*Resolved, therefore*, That the accused be fully confirmed in the possession of the aforesaid territories."

From the *Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam.)

Death of China's Emperor and Empress.

A situation of vast political and economic moment to the entire world was swiftly and dramatically thrust into public view last month by the almost simultaneous deaths of the Emperor of China and that wonderful old maternal aunt of his, the Dowager Empress Tzu-hsi, more generally known as Tsi-An. For several weeks the report had been persistent in the news from the Far East that the young Emperor was nearing his end, and that the Empress had had an attack of paralysis which was likely to prove fatal. It was officially announced that the Emperor passed away on November 14 and the Empress the next day. It is believed, however, by diplomats familiar with the mystery of ceremony and rigid etiquette surrounding the Chinese court that the deaths of both royal personages occurred considerable time before that set down in the official statements. Additional color is given to this belief by the persistent claim made throughout China and cabled to various Chinese publications and societies in this country that the Emperor and Empress were poisoned, or otherwise murdered, at the instigation of some high official who aspired, the reports say, to dictatorial power. Immediately following the official announcement of the deaths of the monarchs came an edict, issued on November 15, placing upon the throne Prince Pu-Yi, the three-year-old son of Prince Chun, a brother of the late Emperor, who, in accordance with a promise made by the Empress Dowager some years ago, becomes regent of the empire until his son attains his majority.



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TSI-AN, THE LATE DOWAGER EMPRESS OF CHINA.



PRINCE CHUN, FATHER OF THE NEW EMPEROR OF CHINA, AND REGENT DURING HIS MINORITY.

Twenty Years of Chinese History.

Chinese political conditions, the circumstances surrounding the life of the Chinese people, and even Chinese names are so unfamiliar to the rest of the world that the history of the empire during the reign of the monarch who has just passed away is not only unknown but likely to remain unintelligible to the great mass of western readers. The facts that stand out in the history of Kuang-hsu's reign, however, are: His attempt to introduce liberal government into the empire upon his actual succession to the throne; the war with Japan in 1894-1895; the Boxer uprising in 1900, followed by the siege and capture of Peking by the allied European and American troops, and the developments of the past three years in westernizing China, including the building of railroads and other internal developments, and the gradual preparation of the people for a constitutional form of government with a representative parlia-

ment. Kuang-hsu ("Illustrious Successor"), whose real name was Tsai-t'ien, was only thirty-six years of age at his death. He was the cousin of the preceding Emperor, T'ung-chih, whose mother was the strong-willed Dowager Empress. Coming of age and nominally assuming the government in 1887, for the following eleven years he was to a considerable extent the real head of the state. His sympathies were naturally liberal, and, thanks to a quite considerable influence exerted by a European teacher, he attempted a series of reforms throughout the empire, beginning with an organized scheme of education and attempting to radically and rapidly transform the legislative and administrative methods of China. To this program he was fully persuaded by the result of the war with Japan, whose triumph even the Chinese could see was due largely, if not wholly, to the Occidental training and methods employed by its government and military forces.

Tsi-An, the Remarkable Empress.

Kuang-hsu's rather erratic reform ideas, which took the form of a number of radical, even sensational, decrees, issued within the short period of a few months, alarmed the reactionaries of the empire, and the palace clique in particular, the head of which had been for years his aunt, that powerful and truly remarkable woman, Tsi-An. A sudden and secret revolution within the palace virtually deposed the Emperor, who until his death remained a prisoner, prevented from seeing any of his friends or former advisers, and compelled to sign with the Vermilion Pencil all the edicts framed by the Dowager Empress, who had assumed all the powers of regent. During the past decade it may be assumed that the influence of the late Emperor was nil, and the actual, almost autocratic ruler of 400,000,000 of Chinese, this shrewd, audacious, far-sighted, and cruel old Manchu woman, who began life as the concubine of the Emperor Hien-Fung, Kuang-hsu's uncle, and who, alternately, by intrigue and sheer audacious ability, directed the affairs of the empire, generally along traditional reactionary lines. She ruled China with an iron hand, made and unmade ministers, viceroys, and governors, tricked and flouted almost all the governments of the west, and to all suggestions of reform on western lines turned a deaf ear. For a short period, a decade ago, during the ascendancy of that remarkable Chinese statesman, Li Hung Chang, it was believed that she was inclined to favor reforms, but the innovators went too far, and Tsi-An became more reactionary than ever.

Effect of China's Defeat by Japan.

The illusion of the invincibility of the Celestial Empire was dispelled by China's defeat at the hands of Japan in 1894-1895. Closely following upon that defeat, which destroyed China's authority over Korea, the western nations began their policy of "grab," and immense sections of Chinese territory were appropriated on the flimsiest of pretexts by almost all the European great powers. England seized Wei-Hai-Wei, Germany Kiau-Chau, Russia Port Arthur, and France obtained her foothold in Annam and Tonking. It was evident that the Empress Dowager's régime had failed, and the reformers endeavored to restore to power the weakling Emperor, cowering in the women's quarter of the palace at Peking. They prevailed upon him to issue (in 1898) a series of remarkable edicts, providing for the foundation of a university at the capital, the radical reform of education, the generous encouragement of agriculture, and the appointment of an imperial commission to travel around the world for the purpose of studying western civilization. Other decrees dealt with the abolition of the bureaucracy, the reformation of the army and the postal system, and the development of mineral and transportation possibilities of the empire. By arts and methods only known to herself, however, the Dowager Empress persuaded the well-meaning but weak Kuang-hsu to sign a decree practically amounting to an abdication, and transferring all his authority to her. Two years later an actual abdication was signed in favor of a six-year-old prince. Mutterings of discontent throughout the empire, however, and the disorders which culminated in the Boxer uprising, compelled the Empress to give way, and the abdication decree was annulled.

Tsi-An Yields a Little to Reforms.

The story of the Boxer uprising and the capture of Peking by the combined armies of the west, an international police mission in which our own soldiers took part, is so well known that it is unnecessary to more than allude to it here. After the capture of the Chinese capital the allied forces refused to permit the deposition of the Emperor, who remained ruler in name, although Tsi-An continued to rule

and administer the government. Until the day of her death she remained unalterably opposed to western ways, and yet it was evident during her last years that she felt unable to entirely withstand the pressure for reforms. Despite her, and against her will, the military forces of China have already been reorganized on western lines, and, following upon the report and advice of two imperial investigating commissions which made a tour of the western world, including this country, a declaration of principles amounting to the basis of a constitution was officially promulgated during the past summer. This instrument contains provisions for the creation of a constitutional commission during the year 1909 and for the promulgation of a complete constitution "before the termination of seven years thereafter." This constitution will eventually make China a parliamentary country, with an administrative machinery like that of Japan.

The New Emperor and the Regency.

It was feared and expected in many quarters that when the news of the death of the Emperor and Empress had reached the masses of the Chinese people there would be rioting and disorder, if not organized rebellion on a large scale, against the Manchu dynasty, which, representing as it does a numerically inferior, though physically and mentally superior race, maintaining its sovereignty for two and a half centuries by its warlike ability, has always been hateful to the true Chinese. The right of succession to Pu-Yi secured by the craft of Tsi-An, though legitimate, is regarded as another evidence of Manchu contempt for the masses of China. Consequently, although the regent, Prince Chun, is a progressive, liberal, and humane man, and although the dominant power in the direction of internal affairs will remain largely, as heretofore, in the hands of the powerful Yuan Shih-kai, acting commander-in-chief of the army and formerly viceroy of Pe-chi-li, an anti-dynastic movement is still possible, so intense is the Chinese hatred of the Manchu.

A Quiet Change of Regime.

No actual disorders had been reported up to the time of our going to press with this issue of the REVIEW, although the extensive military and police precautions against possible uprisings indicated the intensity of the government's apprehension on this score. Meanwhile, according to Dr. Morrison, the Peking correspondent of the London *Times,* the "valedictory decrees" of the Emperor and Empress Dowager are couched in conciliatory terms, and indicate that the reform régime has finally and actually secured the upper hand. The Chinese are no doubt as well fitted for liberal institutions as the Turks or Persians, and changes of far reaching consequences may be looked for within the Celestial Empire during the coming months. The government at Tokio is closely watching the situation in China. While disclaiming any intention of interference in the internal affairs of the Celestial Empire, Japan announces that she is fully prepared to protect her interests in China, although (more than one Tokio newspaper contends) "she expects the advice and co-operation of America." Indeed, Count Hayashi, until recently foreign minister of Japan, has said to an American newspaper correspondent that in his belief the present situation in China will serve to bring the United States and Japan more closely together, "because their political and commercial aims and purposes, so far as China is concerned, are identical."

How American Interests Are Involved.

Chinese-American relations have never been more cordial, and in the readjustment of China's domestic and foreign relations consequent upon the change of régime it may be positively asserted that not only will the United States Government and people adhere to their traditional policy of friendliness toward China and the Chinese, but that the government and people of that vast Oriental realm will continue to look to American justice and love of fair play to be as much a factor as they ever have been in the western combinations which may affect the new China. It will not be necessary for the two nations to conclude an actual formal alliance, as has been advocated by some public men and journals in both countries. Two events of the past month have emphasized the sincerity and cordiality of the relations between the two governments and peoples more strongly than any formal agreement could do. The sincerity of the reception accorded to the American battleship fleet at Amoy last month could not be questioned, although, owing to the shortness of the stay of the ships and the limited means of communication, the welcome did not take on as spontaneously popular a character as was evident in the reception accorded in

Japanese waters. The era of newspapers is only beginning in China, but during the past two years an immense number of daily and weekly journals have sprung into being. The journey to this country of Special Ambassador Tang Shao-yi, to personally and formally thank the United States Government and people for releasing China from obligation to pay the bulk of the so-called Boxer indemnity, is more than a formal occasion. Ambassador Tang is one of the ablest of modern Chinese statesmen. It was he who so successfully coped with the Japanese post-bellum administration in Manchuria. He is commissioned by his government to study constitutional procedure in the United States, as well as American financial methods. In many respects his is the most important commission which has ever left China for a foreign country.

A Complete Understanding with Japan.

The Russian ships and fighters at the battle of the Sea of Japan were not more signally routed and scattered than the preachers of an inevitable American-Japanese war have been by the hearty, sincere, and unprecedented welcome accorded by the Japanese Government and the entire Japanese people to the American battleship fleet. The sight of thousands of Japanese school children singing in English our national hymn "America," and Yankee tars, at the risk of their lives, rescuing from a burning building in Tokio an ancient, much-revered Japanese flag, was enough to convince even the most skeptical of a real spirit of fraternity on the part of the two peoples. Having demonstrated beyond a doubt the correctness and sincerity of their reciprocal attitude, the two governments have given further proof of their earnestness and statesmanlike wisdom by arranging for an official "declaration of points of view," to be published, setting forth the actual status of the negotiations between the two governments and the reciprocal attitude maintained.



JAPAN'S WELCOME TO THE AMERICAN FLEET.
(Front cover of a recent issue of Tokio *Puck*.)

"A Declaration of Points of View."

On November 16 it was admitted at Washington,—with proper reserve and caution as to diplomatic phraseology and terms,—that Baron Takahira, Japanese Ambassador to the United States, had made "the beginning of an oral presentation" to Secretary Root, looking toward the issue of notes identical in character by both governments, reaffirming in epitome all the treaties and agreements of every kind which have been made by the two governments during the past two years. It is recognized in both countries that it would be highly desirable to allay public feeling in the United States, particularly on the Pacific Coast, with regard to Japanese immigration, and in Japan with regard to the San Francisco school children incident. An authoritative statement has also been desirable for some time of the status of American merchants and business men in Manchuria. According to the Japanese proposal, it is said, the joint notes will set forth

> the entirely amicable settlement of the San Francisco school incident, the friendly acceptance by Japan of the arrangement by this Government to prevent Japanese laborers from coming into the mainland, and the efforts of the Japanese Government in restricting emigration of laborers to assist this Government in its policy; the treaties of arbitration and for the protection of patents, trademarks, and copyrights, and the settlement of a number of minor matters with entire good feeling.

It may perhaps be expected,—indeed, it is highly desirable,—that these notes, when exchanged, will contain some reference to the attitude of both countries with regard to the new status in China.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From October 21 to November 19, 1908.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

October 22.—Governor Patterson, of Tennessee, declares martial law in that part of the State where the recent murder of Captain Rankin by "Night Riders" took place....The people of Cleveland vote by a majority of 605 against the municipal traction proposition advocated by Mayor Johnson.

November 3.—Electors of President and Vice-President, Representatives in Congress, and many State legislatures and State and local officers are chosen in the United States....The following United States Senators are chosen by popular vote in their respective States: Albert B. Cummins (Rep.), of Iowa; William J. Stone (Dem.), of Missouri, and Francis G. Newlands (Dem.), of Nevada....The people of California adopt an amendment to the State constitution establishing the direct primary....South Dakota adopts a constitutional amendment lengthening the term of residence necessary to obtain a divorce to one year.

The following table shows the number of votes in the Electoral College and the approximate popular pluralities by States, as divided between the Republican and Democratic candidates for President. As these estimates of popular pluralities are made in advance of the complete official canvass, the figures are not to be accepted as final, but it is believed that they correspond very closely with the actual results of the balloting. In Maryland, two Republican electors are chosen and six Democratic, the pluralities being so small that they may be disregarded in the total.

	TAFT.		BRYAN.	
	Electoral votes.	Estimated pluralities.	Electoral votes.	Estimated pluralities.
California	10	75,000		
Connecticut	7	45,000		
Delaware	3	2,500		
Idaho	3	18,000		
Illinois	27	162,000		
Indiana	15	10,000		
Iowa	13	57,000		
Kansas	10	30,000		
Maine	6	31,200		
Maryland	2	....	6	....
Massachusetts	16	102,000		
Michigan	14	140,000		
Minnesota	11	95,000		
Missouri	18	2,000		
Montana	3	3,000		
N. Hampshire	4	20,000		
New Jersey	12	78,000		
New York	39	202,000		
N. Dakota	4	30,000		
Ohio	23	70,000		
Oregon	4	25,000		
Pennsylvania	34	290,000		
Rhode Island	4	19,000		
S. Dakota	4	25,000		
Utah	3	15,000		
Vermont	4	28,000		
Washington	5	46,000		
W. Virginia	7	26,000		
Wisconsin	13	75,000		
Wyoming	3	5,000		
Alabama			11	50,000
Arkansas			9	25,000
Colorado			5	4,000
Florida			5	20,000
Georgia			13	30,000
Kentucky			13	12,000
Louisiana			9	40,000
Maryland			6	....
Mississippi			10	50,000
Nebraska			8	4,500
Nevada			3	500
N. Carolina			12	35,000
Oklahoma			7	16,000
S. Carolina			9	50,000
Tennessee			12	32,500
Texas			18	165,000
Virginia			12	30,000
Totals	321	1,726,700	162	564,500
Taft's plurality	159	1,162,200		



MILTON COMPOSING HIS "SAMSON AGONISTES."

(The tercentenary of Milton's birth will be celebrated on December 9, 1908.)

Elections to the Sixty-first Congress resulted as follows: 219 Republicans and 172 Democrats.

The following State governors are elected:

Colorado	John F. Shafroth, D.
Connecticut	George L. Lilley, R.
Delaware	Simeon S. Pennewill, R.
Florida	Albert W. Gilchrist, D.
Idaho	James H. Brady, R.
Illinois	Charles S. Deneen, R.*
Indiana	Thomas R. Marshall, D.
Iowa	B. F. Carroll, R.
Kansas	Walter R. Stubbs, R.
Massachusetts	Eben S. Draper, R.
Michigan	Fred M. Warner, R.*
Minnesota	John A. Johnson, D.*
Missouri	Herbert S. Hadley, R.
Montana	Edwin Norris, D.
Nebraska	Ashton C. Shallenberger, D.
New Hampshire	Henry B. Quinby, R.
New York	Charles E. Hughes, R.*
North Carolina	W. W. Kitchin, D.
North Dakota	John Burke, D.*
Ohio	Judson Harmon, D.
Rhode Island	Aram J. Pothier, R.
South Carolina	Martin F. Ansel, D.*
South Dakota	Robert S. Vessey, R.

Tennessee	Malcolm R. Patterson, D.*
Texas	Thomas M. Campbell, D.*
Utah	William Spry, R.
Washington	Samuel G. Cosgrove, R.
West Virginia	William E. Glasscock, R.
Wisconsin	James O. Davidson, R.*

* Re-elected

November 10.—The tariff hearing is opened before the House Ways and Means Committee at Washington.

November 13.—Victor H. Metcalf, Secretary of the Navy, resigns on account of ill health, and Assistant Secretary Truman H. Newberry is appointed to succeed him....President Roosevelt appoints George S. Terry Assistant Treasurer at New York, to succeed Hamilton Fish. ....Col. George H. Torney is appointed Surgeon-General of the Army.

November 16.—The Chicago charter committee, by vote of 6 to 4, adopts a resolution in favor of a bill giving women the right to vote for all municipal offices and on all municipal questions....Secretary Root announces that he is not seeking the New York Senatorship, but will accept if elected.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

October 21.—Alfred Picard accepts the post of French Minister of Marine as successor to M. Thomson, resigned.

October 24.—The Bengal Government confiscates the *Bande Maturam* newspaper.

October 26.—In the parliamentary elections held throughout the Dominion of Canada, the Liberals, headed by Premier Laurier, are continued in power with a reduced majority.... The French Government is defeated on a budget proposal.

October 28.—The Russian Duma reassembles. ....M. Tchaikovski is liberated by the Russian Government on payment of $25,000 bail....The Suffragettes make a disorderly scene in the ladies' gallery of the British House of Commons; several arrests are made.

October 31.—Chancellor von Bülow, of Germany accepts full blame for the publication of an interview with the Emperor; he offers his resignation, which the Emperor declines....Part of the Yildi Kiosk garrison at Constantinople rebels; in quelling the mutiny three men are killed and fifteen wounded.

November 1.—King Edward sends a message to the princes and peoples of India granting amnesty to prisoners and greater political rights to the native population.

November 3.—The new German finance bill places duties on liquors and tobacco....The Unionists carry every district in the Porto Rican elections; Mr. Larrinaga is re-elected Resident Commissioner at Washington.

November 4.—In the German Reichstag four interpellations are moved asking for an explanation of the Kaiser's English interview.

November 5.—The close of the extraordinary session of the Ecuadorian Congress at Quito is followed by a fight in which many persons are injured.

November 7.—The Austrian cabinet resigns, owing to the German-Tzech dissension.

November 9.—The opposition in Newfoundland wins eighteen seats to the government's seventeen.

November 10.—The utterances of the German Emperor, published in the London *Telegraph* interview on October 28, are strongly denounced by members of the Reichstag.

November 11.—The government majority in the German Reichstag votes down a motion of censure addressed to the Emperor....Premier Deakin is defeated in the Australian House at Melbourne; Mr. Fisher, the Radical Labor leader, is asked to form a cabinet.

November 14.—In the Cuban elections, José Miguel Gomez is chosen President....On the death of the Emperor of China two edicts are issued, one making Prince Chun regent and the other naming his son as the heir presumptive.

November 15.—The death of Tzu-hsi, Empress Dowager of China, is announced at Peking.

November 17.—Emperor William of Germany promises Chancellor von Bülow, to meet the popular demand, that foreign affairs will henceforth be conducted through his ministers.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

October 21.—Austria prohibits the export of arms to Servia and orders that apologies be made for the detention at Agram of a Montenegrin envoy to Servia.

October 23.—Secretary Root refuses to grant a warrant for the extradition of Jan Pouren, the alleged revolutionist, demanded by the Russian Government.

October 26.—President Castro of Venezuela refuses to grant the demands of Holland regarding the transshipment of goods at Dutch ports for Venezuela....The Emperor of Japan sends a message of thanks to the President of the United States for the latter's message and for the visit of the fleet.

October 29.—It is announced that a preliminary agreement has been reached between Bulgaria and Turkey regarding Bulgarian independence....Sir Edward Grey makes a statement in regard to the situation in Persia.

October 30.—The Czar of Russia formally receives Crown Prince George of Servia and urges an abandonment of hostile attitude toward Austria.

November 3.—President Castro of Venezuela modifies his transshipment decree; vessels are now permitted to leave Parian ports for Trinidad.

November 4.—The Dutch Government assures the Curaçao islanders that it will settle the difficulty with Venezuela satisfactorily.

November 5.—France proposes to Germany that both governments express regret over the Casablanca incident, and that the questions involved be submitted to arbitration.

November 6.—Bulgaria asks Russia to induce the powers to obtain a modification of Turkey's pecuniary demands.

November 7.—France remains firm in her refusal to apologize to Germany for the Casablanca incident....Holland revokes the treaty of 1894 with Venezuela; Curaçao is practically made a base for revolutionary movements.... The German Emperor chooses Count Johann

Heinrich von Bernstorff as Ambassador to the United States.

November 10.—An agreement is signed at Berlin by which France and Germany agree to settle the Casablanca question at The Hague.

November 11.—It is officially announced that Austria-Hungary will assume no part of the Turkish debt, and Servia is warned against further preparations for hostilities.

November 14.—Negotiations are resumed between the United States and Japan to obtain a clear understanding of Japan's intentions with regard to Manchuria.

November 17.—Servia withdraws special guards on the Austrian frontier and sends the reserves to their homes.

November 18.—St. Petersburg newspapers demand that Russia intervene at once in Persia.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

October 21.—The British Government announces that a fund of $1,500,000 will be provided to relieve the distress of the unemployed, and that work will be advanced on naval construction....The fortieth annual convention of the National American Woman Suffrage Association ends at Buffalo....The annual Lake Mohonk Conference of Friends of the Indians and Other Dependent People is opened at Lake Mohonk, N. Y.

October 22.—The city of Tokio, Japan, welcomes the officers and men of the American fleet with great enthusiasm.

October 23.—Count Zeppelin's reconstructed airship, carrying ten passengers, makes a successful flight at Friedrichshafen....The compartment forming the tail of the Parseval airship bursts at a height of 6000 feet; the occupants land without injury....The annual convention of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union opens at Denver.

October 24.—A heavy storm causes great damage to crops in Nicaragua.

October 25.—The Formosan Railway, 334 miles long, is formally opened.

October 26.—William Montgomery, formerly cashier of the wrecked Allegheny National Bank of Pittsburg, is found guilty of embezzling $469,000 of the funds of the institution.

October 27.—Prince Henry of Prussia makes a long trip with Count Zeppelin in his airship.

October 28.—The British Aero Club awards its gold medal to the Wright Brothers....The one hundredth anniversary of the founding of the Roman Catholic diocese of Boston is celebrated.

October 29.—The American battleship fleet, under command of Admiral Emory, arrives at Amoy, China.

October 30.—Henry Farman covers twenty miles in twenty minutes in his aeroplane, flying from Mourmelon to Rheims.

October 31.—The Aero Club of Berlin awards the Bennett cup in the international balloon race to the Swiss balloon *Helvetia*.

November 2.—The Pennsylvania Railroad Company awards a $5,000,000 contract for the electrical equipment of the New York tunnels to the Westinghouse Company.



THE LATE VICTORIEN SARDOU, THE DRAMATIST.

November 4.—The resignation of President Eliot of Harvard University is announced.

November 5.—Charles W. Morse and Alfred H. Curtis are found guilty of misapplying and falsely entering the funds of the National Bank of North America, in New York City.

November 6.—The steamer *Taish* is sunk in a storm off the coast of Hokkaido; 150 lives are lost....A dispute in the English cotton mills is settled by the employers postponing a proposed decrease in wages until March next....Charles W. Morse, found guilty of misapplying the funds of the National Bank of North America, is sentenced to fifteen years' imprisonment; A. H. Curtis is released on a suspended sentence.

November 7.—Crown Prince Frederick William of Germany makes an ascent from Friedrichshafen with Count Zeppelin in his airship. ....The *Collingwood*, a British warship of the *Dreadnought* type, is launched at Bath, England.

November 9.—Ex-United States Senator Edward W. Carmack, of Tennessee, is shot dead in Nashville by Robin Cooper as a result of a bitter political feud....An escaped lunatic shoots Postmaster Edward M. Morgan, of New York City, and then kills himself....The Army War College, in Washington, is opened.

November 10.—The battleship *North Dakota* is successfully launched at Quincy, Mass.... The American Federation of Labor meets in annual convention at Denver.

November 11.—Eleven persons are killed and many injured in a railroad collision near New Orleans; eleven persons are also killed in a collision at Borie, Wyo.

November 12.—Three hundred and thirty-nine miners are killed in an explosion in the Radbod mine, near Hamm, Westphalia, Germany.

November 13.—Francis J. Heney, prosecutor of the San Francisco graft cases, is shot in the courtroom by a saloonkeeper, whom he had exposed as an ex-convict.

November 14.—President-elect Taft speaks at the dedication of the monument to the Prison Ship Martyrs in Fort Greene Park, Brooklyn, N. Y.

November 16.—A storm causes a loss of several lives and a million dollars' worth of property in Cape Colony....Pope Pius X. celebrates mass at St. Peter's on the occasion of his fiftieth anniversary of entering the priesthood....Peter van Vlissengen, a Chicago real-estate dealer, confesses that he has obtained $700,000 by forgery in the last eighteen or twenty years; he is sentenced to from one to fourteen years in the penitentiary.

November 18.—Three men start from London in a huge balloon owned by a London newspaper, hoping to reach Siberia....Secretary Cortelyou invites bids for $30,000,000 Panama Canal bonds.

OBITUARY.

October 21.—Charles Eliot Norton, the well-known scholar and writer, 81.

October 22.—Rear-Admiral Arthur Burtis, U. S. N., retired, 67....Mrs. Ruth S. Murray, the biographer of George Fox, founder of the Society of Friends, 81....Mgr. William J. Slocum, of Waterbury, Conn., 57.

October 23.—John E. Searles, one of the organizers of the American Sugar Refining Company, 68.

October 24.—Dr. A. Brayton Ball, professor emeritus of clinical medicine at Columbia University, 68.

October 25.—Rev. Hiram Bingham, D.D., the missionary to the Gilbert Islands, 77....Brig.-Gen. Harry Leland Haskell, U. S. A., retired, 68.

October 26.—Cardinal Francois Desire Mathieu, formerly Archbishop of Toulouse, 69....Frank M. Kiggins, chief examiner of the United States Civil Service Commission, 41....Ex-Congressman Allan Langdon McDermott, of New Jersey, 54....Ex-Gov. John Miller, of North Dakóta, 65....Giuseppe Biancheri, formerly president of the Italian Chamber of Deputies, 85.

October 27.—Cardinal Salvador Casanas y Pages, Bishop of Barcelona, 74.

October 28.—The Earl of Drogheda, 62.

October 30.—Thomas Greenway, former Premier of Manitoba, 70....Mrs. William Astor, for many years the leader of New York social life, 78.

October 31.—John B. Jackson, a well-known Pittsburg financier, 64....James Kerr, Democratic National Committeeman from Pennsylvania, 57.

November 1.—Mrs. Julia Fletcher Carney, author of "Little Drops of Water," 85....Eugene L. Munn, president of the Park National Bank of Holyoke, Mass., 54.

November 3.—August Vianesi, first conductor of the Metropolitan Opera House, 81.

November 4.—Tomas Estrada Palma, ex-President of Cuba, 72....Prof. Edwin Emerson, 86....Harro Magnussen, the well-known German sculptor, 47.

November 5.—Edward G. Gilmore, the New York theatrical manager, 69....Col. W. P. Price, former Member of Congress from Georgia, 71....Prof. Otis T. Mason, of the National Museum, 70....Antoine Auguste Ernest Hebert, the French historical painter, 91.

November 7.—Ex-Congressman Daniel M. Van Auken, of Pennsylvania, 83....Edwin V. Skinner, general passenger agent of the Canadian Pacific Railroad, 60....Daniel McCoy, former State Treasurer of Michigan, 63.

November 8.—Victorien Sardou, the French dramatist, 77....Prof. William Edward Ayrton, the well-known English scientist and inventor, 61.

November 9.—Ex-United States Senator Edward W. Carmack, of Tennessee, 50....John Harvey Treat, the historiographer, 69....Sir J. J. Duveen, the London art dealer, 65.

November 10.—Justice S. S. Calhoun, of the Mississippi Supreme Court, 70....David De Camp Thompson, editor of the *Northwestern Christian Advocate*, 56....Herbert Dudley Hale, a New York architect, 42.

November 11.—Rear-Admiral James M. Miller, governor of the United States naval home at Philadelphia, 61....Rev. George Ernest Viger, for over forty-seven years a member of the faculty of St. Charles College, Ellicott City, Md.

November 12.—Dr. William Keith Brooks, professor of zoology at Johns Hopkins University, 60....Dr. Azel Ames, sanitary engineer and writer, 63....Ex-Mayor Gustav Tafel, of Cincinnati, 78....Rev. John Denison Kingsbury, D.D., a well-known Congregational minister, 77.

November 13.—Sidney Edward Morse, for many years editor of the New York *Observer*, 73.

November 14.—The Emperor of China, Kuang-hsu, 36....Achille Luchaire, the French historian, 62....Grand Duke Alexis, uncle of the Czar of Russia, 58.

November 15.—The Dowager Empress of China, Tsi-An, 73....Count von Huelsen-Haseler, chief of the German Emperor's military cabinet, 56....Mrs. Annis Lee Wister, widely known as a translator of German novels....Ex-Congressman Edward D. Hayden, of Massachusetts, 75....Mme. Arvade Barine, the French author, 68....Bishop Edward J. Knight, of the Western Episcopal diocese of Colorado, 45....Col. Martin B. Hughes, U. S. A., retired, 61....Edgar K. Betts, of Troy, N. Y., head of the firm of Earl & Wilson, 66.

November 16.—Sir H. G. Joly de Lotbinière, formerly lieutenant-governor of British Columbia, 80....Ex-Gov. Robert Burns Smith, of Montana, 54.

November 18.—Edward King, for thirty-five years president of the Union Trust Company of New York, 75.

November 19.—Ex-Congressman Darwin R. James, of New York, 74.

SOME AMERICAN AND FOREIGN CARTOONS.



ON WITH THE DANCE, LET JOY BE UNCONFINED

The Republican elephant's jubilation over the splendid victory of Mr. Taft.
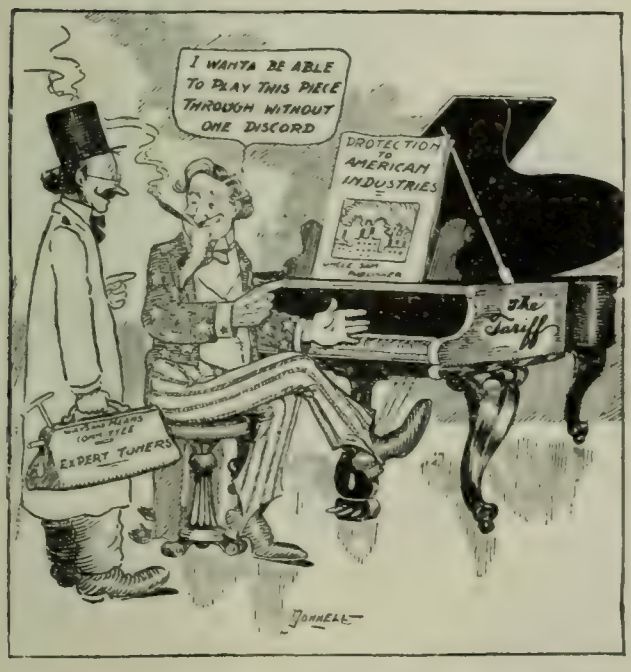
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



IT'S ALL OVER.

Back to the grind.

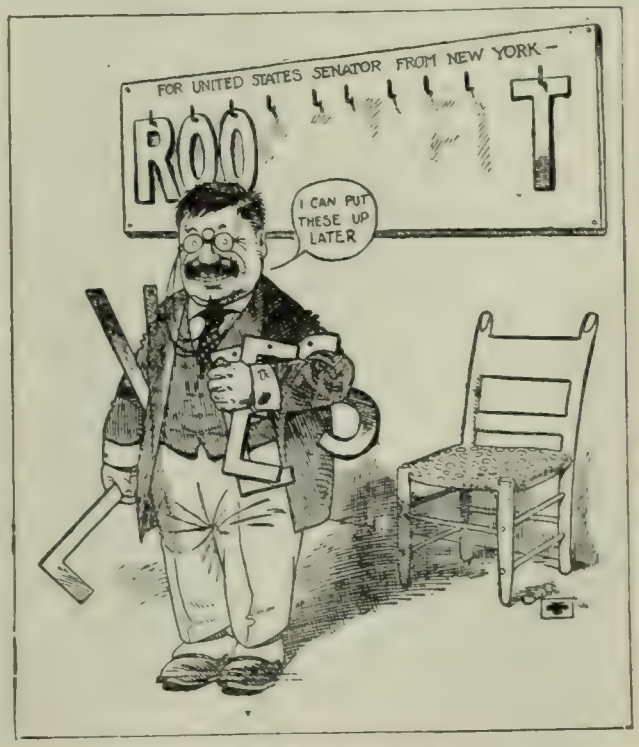
From the *Traveler* (Boston).



AND THE OLD INSTRUMENT WILL NEED SOME TUNING TO DO THAT!

Now that the Presidential election is over, Uncle Sam desires to have his "tariff" piano tuned up.

From the *Globe-Democrat* (St. Louis).



SIMPLIFIED SPELLING.

Apropos of the New York Senatorial situation, and the report that Mr. Root may succeed Senator Platt in 1909, and that Mr. Roosevelt may succeed Senator Depew in 1911.

From the *Herald* (Rochester).



HOLLAND VS. VENEZUELA.

President Castro presents another ultimatum.
From the *Herald* (Washington, D. C.).



THE DOWAGER EMPRESS OF CHINA IS NO MORE.

UNCLE SAM: "Now, on the level, Chink, are you looking for congratulations or condolences? I can't tell whether you're laughin' or crin'!"
From the *Sun* (Baltimore).

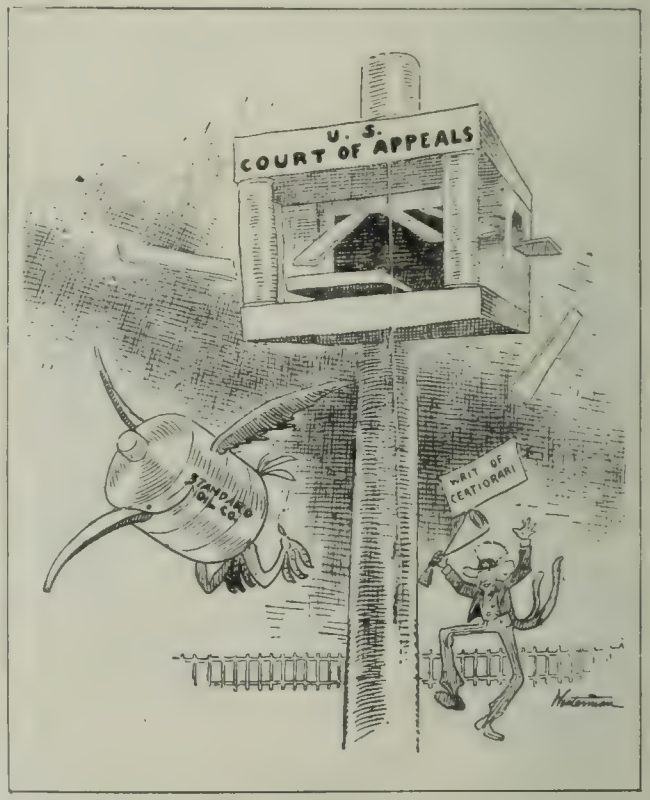


THE POLICEMAN: "Slow up, young fellow, or I'll take your number."
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



LOOK OUT BELOW.

Cuba makes a fresh start in self-government with the election of President Gomez on November 14.
From the *Bee* (Omaha).



FLEW THE COOP.

The United States Court of Appeals reversed the fine of $29,000,000 imposed on the Standard Oil Company by Judge Landis, of the United States Circuit Court.
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



A TURKISH VIEW OF THE TURKISH SITUATION.
Is the new constitution to be supported by the army?
From *Kalem* (Constantinople).



THE GERMAN EMPEROR AS ADMIRAL OF THE AIR.
Apropos of Germany's triumphs in aerial navigation.
From *Lustige Blätter* (Berlin).



EMPEROR WILLIAM DISPOSING OF OLD STOCK.
"Nations of Europe, I represent, as you know, the great Hague firm of Peace & Co. Can I sell you any well-matured war plans?"
From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).



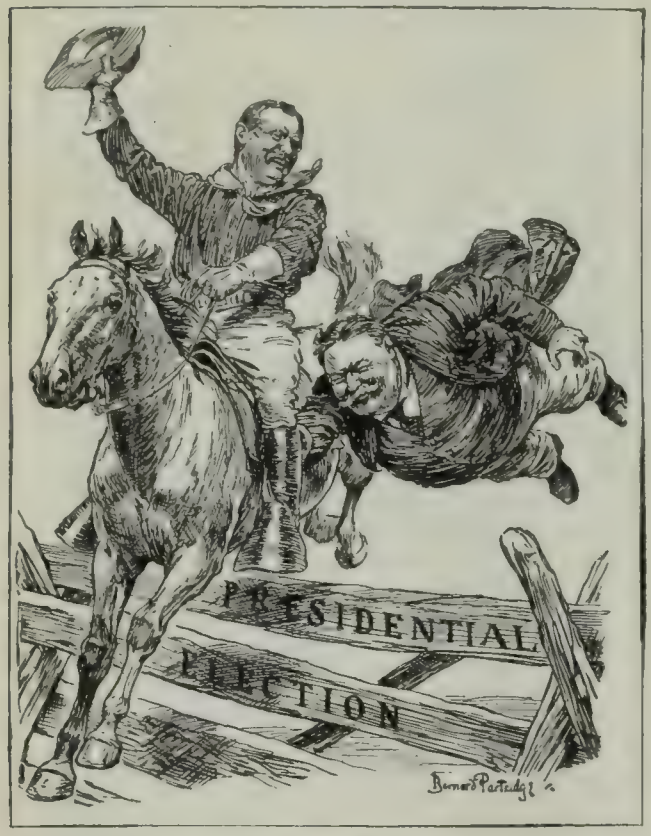
"MAY SHE LIVE FOR EVERMORE!"
ANGEL OF WORLD PEACE: "With all their peace speeches I shall be talked to death!"
From *Ulk* (Berlin).



THE AUSTRIAN LION TO THE SERVIAN PRINCELET: "Do you imagine you can frighten me?"
From *Borszem Jankó* (Budapest).



THE IMPENDING INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE.
After the high commission has seized the Balkan "suspects," and tied them to the stake, the important question will be, "Shall they be boiled or roasted?"
From *Der Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart).



ALONE I DIDN'T DO IT.
MR. TAFT (breathless but triumphant): "Thank you, Teddy!"
From *Punch* (London).



A FELLOW FEELING.
AMERICAN BIRD (exhausted by Presidential election): "Guess it's a hard life being an eagle!"
From *Punch* (London).



WRECKED FISHING SCHOONERS.—THE "STRATHCONA" PULLED MORE THAN FORTY OFF THIS COAST DURING RECENT STORMS.

(On the right, Dr. Grenfell, the marked figure, is seated on the *Strathcona's* deck among his men.)

GRENFELL OF LABRADOR.

BY P. T. McGRATH.

THE writer has known Wilfred Thomason Grenfell ever since he began his work on the Labrador waters, in 1892, and honestly believes that no man, single-handed, has achieved in any part of the world such a variety of philanthropic successes as stand to the credit of "Grenfell of Labrador." Preacher, teacher, physician, surgeon, magistrate, policeman, navigator, pilot, charity commissioner, orphans' guardian, grand almoner for the whole seaboard, wreck investigator, cartographer, rescuer of imperiled fishermen, and salvager of stranded crafts,—he is a perambulating providence to every man whose livelihood is secured on the lonely desolate seaboard.

Work so splendid and so successful has won him recognition on both sides of the Atlantic. King Edward, in personal audience two years ago, created him a "C. M. G." (Companion of St. Michael and St. George); Oxford honored him with the only M.D. degree she has ever bestowed; Lord Strathcona (who lived sixteen years on Labrador), declares, "he is the most useful man in the North American continent today;" President Roosevelt has entertained him and endorsed his movement; Secretary Root has visited him on Labrador, and highly commends his labors; Earl Grey, Governor-General of Canada, advised royalty's honor to him; and Harvard, McGill, and other universities are among his principal supporters.

When Grenfell came to Labrador, in 1892, he found the 3000 permanent residents and the 30,000 summer fisher-folk from Newfoundland almost without religious or medical aid; in the clutches of merchants and traders who advanced them fishing outfits at enormous figures, and took their catch in return, contriving to keep them in debt during their whole lives and maintaining this system of bondage for generations, with misery and destitution universal; with children barefooted and naked in a zero temperature, and parents so beggared as to borrow each other's clothes to come to him for treatment; with education virtually unknown, the ruling powers indifferent, if not criminally neglectful, and the region a veritable land of desolation for all connected with it.

Within sixteen years he has effected a revolution so complete and comprehensive in the conditions of existence there as to seem almost a miracle. Beginning by clothing the naked and succoring the sick, he has gradually, by judicious charity, encouragement of thrift, incitement to self-help and industry, and the preaching of the doctrine of practical Christianity, created a people comfortable, contented and free, in the main from the fear of perishing by hunger or nakedness,—formerly the fate of large numbers of the permanents.

The medical and spiritual needs of the "transients" have been as fully satisfied.

He has built hospitals, orphanages, sawmills, and workshops; he cruises among the fleet in a hospital-ship, and has launches attached to the land hospitals for the conveyance of patients to and fro, since there are no roads; he has established eight co-operative stores, providing much of the capital out of his private means and asking no interest on it; has built a schooner every winter for some years, with lumber from his own mills, on plans drawn on a shingle by a local genius of a shipwright unable to read or write; has started classes in weaving, carpentry and other trades; has opened day and night schools, and put into service sixty lending libraries donated by Andrew Carnegie; has installed his own electricity, telegraphs and telephones; has charted the entire seaboard and mapped the terrain nearby; has imported reindeer from Norway to replace the man-eating "husky" dogs that are the terror of the region, and is now undertaking the most herculean task of all,—the raising of $100,000 to transform a moribund seamen's home in St. John's into a fishermen's institute. This will really be what the word implies in a country where fishing is the chief pursuit, and where such a headquarters in one of the world's greatest fishing ports has been a crying need for so many years.

Dr. Grenfell was born near Liverpool on February 28, 1865, a cadet of an eminent English family of soldiers and scholars, descended directly on the paternal side from Sir Richard Grenvil, the hero of Tennyson's poem, "The Revenge," and on the maternal side from the notable Sydneys of Penshurst and the Hutchinsons, generals in the Indian Mutiny days. His father was a prominent clergyman, a school-master, of the Arnold-of-Rugby type, and imparted to him his educational grounding, completed at Marlborough College and Oxford University.

His medical training was acquired at London under Sir Frederick Treves, the famous surgeon, to whom, jointly with Moody the evangelist, Grenfell owes the inspiration for his career as a medical missionary. As a student he heard Moody preach and was influenced to dedicate his life to the service of his fellow-man, while Treves suggested his undertaking surgeon's duties among the North Sea smacks.

The spirit of his warlike ancestors animates this man, though his weapon is the scalpel and his course the "Golden Rule." He is of the class of splendid young Englanders who are the Empire's pride,—the men that have won the world's admiration by remaking Egypt,—the men that are molding India in the same way. Instead of seeking a lucrative practice in his native land, he has preferred to carry the "Message of Love" to this desolate, ice-clad Northland, and to face daily the greatest hazards to life and limb by land and sea.

Take his latest and most thrilling experience,—his going adrift on an icefloe last April, on Easter Sunday, and nearly perishing. He was responding to a sick call sixty miles away, and broke through some bad ice while crossing an inlet. He had no companion, but contrived to get upon a piece of ice with his eight dogs, after cutting them loose from the sledge before it sank. The "pan" broke apart, and he had to discard his heavy clothes and swim to another with the



In a fisherman's hut,—Dr. Grenfell and a patient. In the male ward, Battle Harbor Hospital.

A CONTRAST,—TO-DAY SIX NEAT HOSPITALS RECEIVE THOSE WHO ONCE HAD TO SUFFER IN HUTS.



WILFRED THOMASON GRENFELL, C.M.G., M.D. (OXON.)

A mere epitome of Dr. Grenfell's labors in Labrador is striking. In 1892, in the *Albert*, he spent three months on the coast, holding services and treating 900 sick. In 1893 buildings at Battle Harbor, gifts of friends in St. John's, were converted into a hospital, with a second doctor and a launch for transport, while the *Albert* cruised with the fleet. The next year Indian Harbor hospital was inaugurated, and Battle Harbor hospital kept open all winter.

Up to this time the Parent Society in England, and his personal friends there, found all the funds save a trifle subscribed in Newfoundland, but this year friends in Canada began to help. In 1895 the *Albert* was replaced by the steamer *Sir Donald*, the gift of Sir Donald Smith (now Lord Strathcona), and the total of patients treated rose to 1,900. In 1896 the first co-operative store was started.

In 1898 the wide-spread distress caused by bad fisheries was adequately relieved. In 1899 the hospital steamer *Strathcona* was built in England for the mission, chiefly through that peer's gifts. In 1900 a third hospital was erected at St. Anthony, Northeast Newfoundland, and the next year a co-operative sawmill was started near there, and a schooner built on the site. A year later "Battle" hospital had a new wing added, and "Indian" hospital was enlarged; 2,774 patients were treated, 110 being hospital cases. In 1903 further additions were made to both hospitals, and fast gasoline launches, specially built and squipped for conveying patients, were substituted for the *Princess May* and *Julia Sheridan*. In 1904 a residence for the doctor was built at "Battle," and an orphanage and technical school at St. Anthony. In 1905 a doctor was stationed at Harrington, Canadian Labrador, west of Belle Isle Strait, Carnegie circulating libraries were introduced, and two Boston specialists spent the summer with Grenfell. In 1906 a hospital and physician's residence were built at Harrington, and a launch added. In 1907 Grenfell raised $15,000,—$5,000 from the Canadian Government and $10,000 from supporters in America, Canada, and England, chiefly the former,—and imported a herd of 300 Lapland reindeer.

This year he has had seven doctors, ten trained nurses, and experts in orphanages, manual training, weaving, and other handicrafts at work. The patients this year number about 3,600, of whom 180 are hospital cases. As I write he is leaving for Canada and the United States for a winter's lecturing tour, extending from Halifax to Vancouver, and from New York to San Francisco, in order to raise $100,000 for the proposed fishermen's institute in St. John's.



GRENFELL AT SEA,—"A PERAMBULATING PROVIDENCE."

(He is doctor, minister, and magistrate for 3000 miles.)

dogs. It was but the size of a dining table, and on it he spent a night and a day, clad only in a light sweater vest, short knickers, and mocassins, without hat, coat, or gloves, after being three times in the water.

He drifted about twenty miles along the coast. To protect himself from the biting blasts, he killed that night three dogs and used their skins for coverlets, their bodies for a wind-shield, their harness for puttees, and their frozen legs as a flag-pole, on which he attached his shirt in the morning as a signal.

He would inevitably have perished but that the previous evening some men seal-hunting saw the "pan" with a peculiar burden, and reported in their village that a man was adrift. One neighbor had a good spy-glass, and hurried to the cliffs for a lookout, confirming the report; and as they surmised it was Grenfell, messengers were sent all along the shore, and lookouts stationed to locate him again at daybreak, for the wind was inshore, the ice was "panning," and no boat could be launched. Grenfell himself says:

> There was little slumber that night in the villages, and even the men told me that there were few dry eyes. Before daybreak a fine volunteer crew had been gotten together, and effected a rescue. When at last we came through the harbor mouth on our return, I knew well what wives and children had been thinking of when they saw their loved ones put out. Only a few years ago I remember a fisherman's wife watching her husband and three sons take out a boat to bring in a stranger that was showing flags for a pilot. But the boat and its occupants have not yet come back. Early in the season the father of the very boy I was going to operate on had been drowned in the same way as I had nearly been, his dogs, dangling their traces around him in the slob (ice ground up by fragments clashing together). I must have been a weird sight as I stepped ashore, tied up in rags stuffed out with oakum, and wrapped in the bloody skins of dogs. It must have seemed to some as if it was the old man of the sea coming ashore.

His hands and feet were severely frost-bitten, he was snow-blind and physically exhausted, and he had to be brought on a sledge to the hospital, as he could not walk, owing to the condition of his feet. This, however,



"JUST AS I CAME OFF THE ICE."

(A miraculous escape from being swept out to sea.)



ONE OF THE EIGHT CO-OPERATIVE STORES THAT HAVE RESCUED THE FISHERMEN FROM INDUSTRIAL SLAVERY.

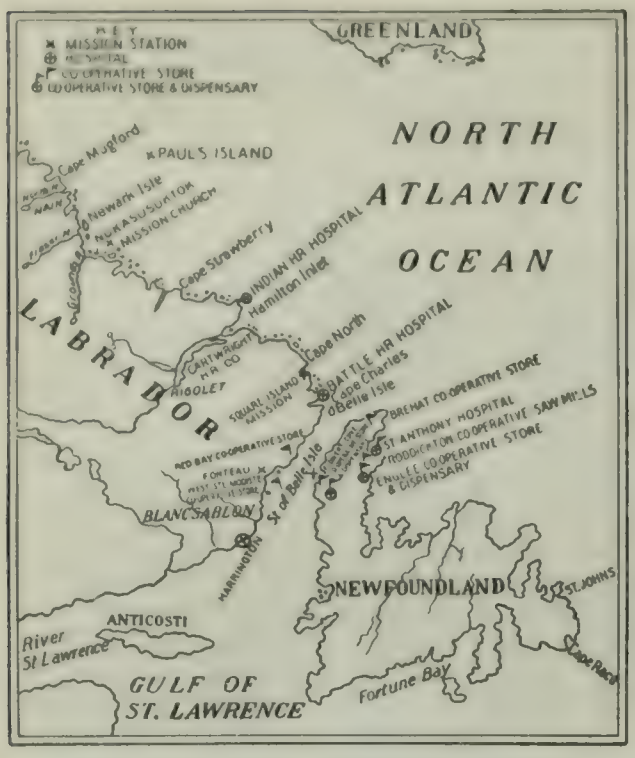
(The losses Dr. Grenfell makes good out of his own pocket; the profits he turns over to the mission.)

was only one of his many narrow escapes by sea and land, traveling in tempests in summer and blizzards in winter, pursuing his self-imposed task of combating sin and disease, poverty and disaster in this "parish" amid the Arctic snows.

A DAY'S WORK.

None but a resolute and powerful man could get through a routine like Grenfell's. His daily tasks in summer include treatment of ward cases received aboard his ship between hospital points; navigating of the steamer, for he is his own pilot; attention to all patients found in the different harbors or aboard the fishing vessels, such as diagnosing and dispensing for those ailing, abscess-letting, tooth-pulling, etc.; holding religious meetings every evening; responding to all calls at whatever hour, even when this implies landing in the inky blackness of night or rowing miles in an open boat where the ship cannot get; writing a daily diary for a score of newspapers to swell the funds; conducting Sunday services all the season round; arranging for supplies of wood for the ship's furnaces in a land where there is no coal; adjudicating the disputes between the fisher-folk as an unpaid magistrate; caring for orphans and lunatics; providing clothes and food for the ill-clad and destitute; wooden legs and arms for the crippled, shot-guns, and game traps for the "furriers," and nets and gear for the fisher-folk who have met misfortune; hearkening to the appeal of everybody in distress, and relieving them so far as possible; baptizing, marrying, and burying where no clergyman ever goes; towing off stranded vessels after every great storm, and carrying wrecked crews southward to the mailboat; sounding for reefs, exploring harbors, and discovering new cod-banks for the trawlers, beside keeping track of the multitude of details and the finances incident to the administration of four hospitals and a ship, as well as all the subsidiary enterprises,—lending libraries, workshops, fox-farms, angora goat herds, farm at St. Anthony, sawmill at Roddickton, eight co-operative stores, and the reindeer herd; not to mention correspondence with institutions and friends in Europe and America.

During a summer he will cruise some 3000 to 4000 miles, between St. John's, St.



THE SCENE OF DR. GRENFELL'S LABORS.

Anthony, Harrington, Battle, Indian Harbor, and Cape Chidley, at the entrance to Hudson Strait. He faces the perils of reefs, fogs, storms, and icebergs daily. If the ship leaks or loses her propeller, he beaches her and patches up the hole or bolts on new fan-blades, working in water waist deep, and perhaps performing a critical surgical operation between tides. Injuries to the machinery are repaired in the same way, necessity compelling ingenious inventions and makeshift devices to carry him along.

During a winter he will travel 2000 miles over a frozen wilderness with snowshoes and dogsleds, visiting every family, "curing without pay and laboring without stint," battling with blizzards, begirt by a dreary solitude, sleeping in the snow, feeding as conditions permit, imperilling life and limb in the drifts or by falling through the icy covering of the lakes or streams, and encountering dangers unsurpassed in the annals of Arctic explorers.

The mission knows no class, creed, or condition of people; it cares for everybody on the same basis of universal Christian charity. The testimonials to its worth from fishermen, clergymen, tourists, and otherwise, would fill volumes.

It may be asked why does the Newfoundland Government not undertake such work of itself? One answer is that in England it is done by private effort, and another is that Newfoundland is too poor. She only maintains the general hospital in St. John's for cases from all over the island, and the total outlay for this hospital is but $30,000.

A series of tragic fatalities on the coast forced the Terranovan Government to station a physician on the summer mailboat. Even then, the appointment being political, deplorable scandals occasionally ensued.

In 1891 Sir Francis Hopewood, now Colonial Undersecretary, visiting Newfoundland, was struck with the terrible conditions existing in this Labrador fishery, and on returning to England, advocated that the "Deep-Sea Mission" operating in the North Sea, and of which he was a Councillor, should extend its labors to this remote region. This being resolved upon, Dr. Grenfell, its superintendent, was sent across the next season in the *Albert*.

Originally intending merely to mitigate the religious and medical drawbacks of the fishing people, Grenfell found, after personal contact with them, that the condition of the livyers (natives) necessitated a great widening of his activities, and especially the taking of immediate steps to wrest them from the clutch of the "truck system," which made them slaves of the merchants and traders.

SHARING LOSSES, BUT NOT PROFITS.

All of these economic ventures,—that is to say, every enterprise with which Grenfell's name is identified apart from the actual hospital work,—have been personal projects of his own, started with his private funds. The losses, where such have been met, as in the case of one co-operative store which failed, and in which he sank $1200, Grenfell has made good out of his own pocket; but the profits, where such occur, he turns over to the Deep-Sea Mission without even the slightest deduction for himself. He receives a salary of only $1500 a year, exactly the same that he got when he came out a young man sixteen years ago. He has refused several offers of the mission to increase it in the interim, though his work has enormously enlarged, and his assistant doctors, with only one hospital each, receive $1250. All of his salary, apart from his actual living expenses, he puts into these ventures, also the receipts from his books and writings, and the proceeds of his lecturing tours. All the enterprises, co-operative stores, sawmills, fox-farms, reindeer, etc., are deeded over to the mission, and become its property as they prove profitable.

The actual cost of the whole mission and subsidiary work is now $40,000 a year. Of this, the "Grenfell Associations" in America, organizations of philanthropic friends, contribute $15,000 a year.

At the office of the New York City "Grenfell Association," 156 Fifth Avenue, arrangements are made for Dr. Grenfell to lecture at different places in the States (his 1908 tour begins this month), and other contributions to the mission are received.

The association in Canada sends $7000 a year; in England (including the parent society's payment of the salaries of his staff of doctors and nurses), $15,000; and Newfoundland, $3000, one-half coming from the Colonial Government as a subsidy of $500 a year toward each hospital,—less than the cost of maintaining a single nurse there. The disbursements on account of the mission last year through the St. John's office were $28,673; and not the least of Grenfell's anxieties is the maintenance of the voluntary contributions which alone make the undertaking possible. It is gratifying to be able to testify on his authority that the generosity of the world to him is growing, and that offers of personal volunteer help are so numerous that he cannot accept them all. The past sum-



KIRKINA AND NOAH,—TWO ADOPTED WAIFS.
(The little girl's frozen feet had been chopped off. With artificial feet she now runs and skips rope.)



THE CHRISTMAS DOCTOR,—GRENFELL ON A WINTER JOURNEY TO A PATIENT.
(He receives no pay for this work. Freezing trips of twenty to sixty miles are not infrequent.)

mer he has had seven doctors and ten nurses at work, several being volunteers, besides helpers in other departments, and some of the leading specialists in America cruise with him each season and perform the most delicate operations known to surgery.

Grenfell is a man of medium height and build, in the best physical condition always as a result of early athletic games and a life of unceasing mental and physical activity. Time has dealt lightly with him despite the hardships endured and the hazards undergone, and beyond a "graying" of his hair, he seems unchanged, since first landing here sixteen years ago. Modest and retiring, shy almost, and deprecating publicity, his resolute character and quiet determination express themselves as one learns of his courageous and philanthropic deeds. Earnest, devoted, and self-sacrificing, he still makes light of danger and difficulty, and sees in every obstacle only an incentive to greater effort for victory, which he makes with a frank, almost boyish confidence and whole-hearted enthusiasm that is in itself a large factor in securing the complete success at which he aims.

[A note to the author from Dr. Grenfell, on hearing of the preparation of the above article, may not come amiss here. It is so full of the instinct to help.—THE EDITOR.]

DEAR MCGRATH:

Please give others a fuller share of credit, and spare me the praise so generously given me often, but which I *honestly* do not deserve. Moreover, we all just love the work,—and the bunkum about sacrifice and so is purely invented. As the Yankees say, "It is a bully thing to be up against a problem."

This summer has been a still much more rapid growth,—fancy the *Portia* bringing us thirty patients in a single day on two occasions! at only one hospital. Yours gratefully,

WILFRED GRENFELL.

NEW YORK'S FIRST BUDGET EXHIBIT.

BY WILLIAM H. ALLEN.

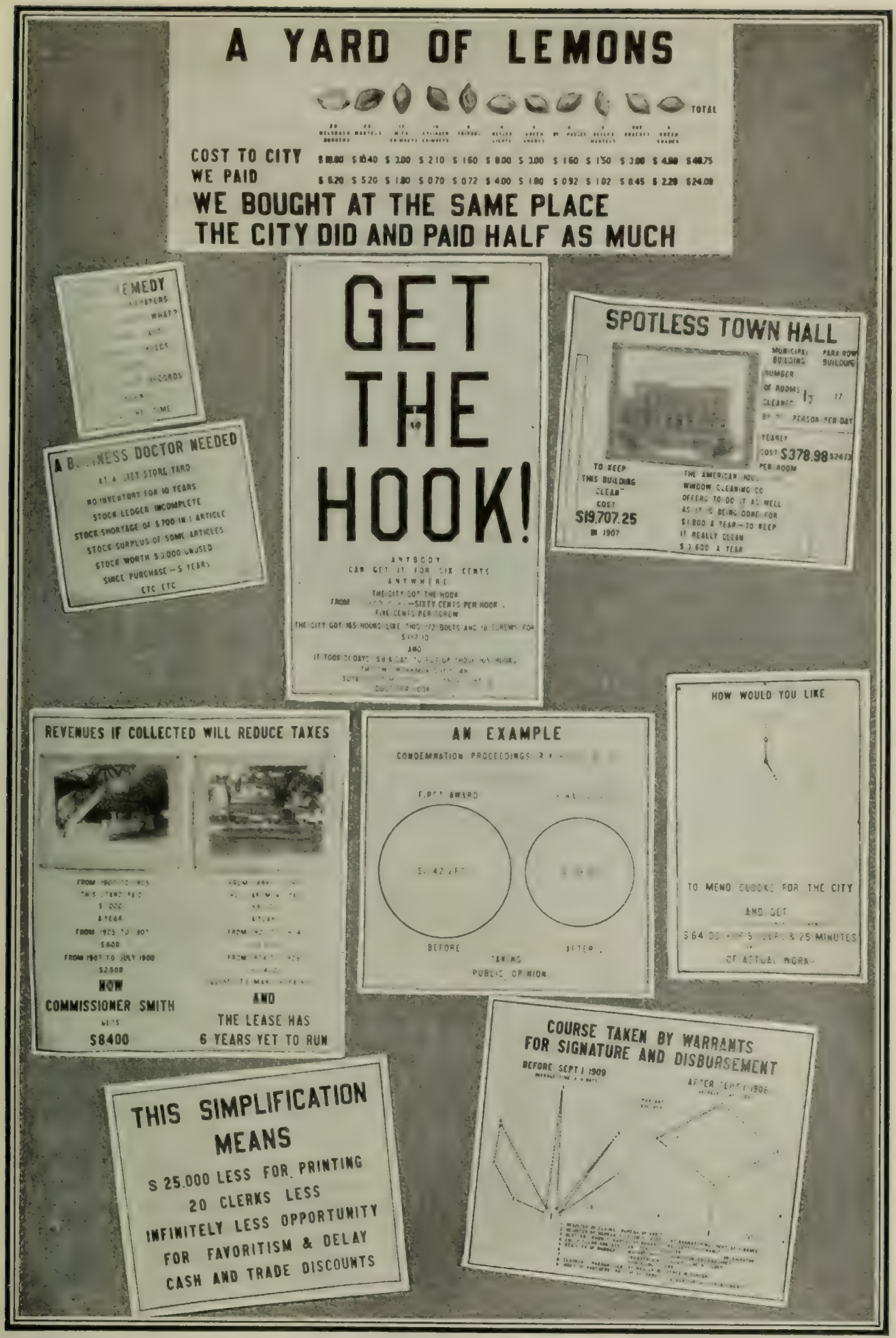
(Secretary, Bureau of Municipal Research, New York.)

IN a non-partisan speech on "The Right to Efficient Government," Governor Hughes characterized New York's first budget exhibit as "an important advance over the old methods of stirring up agitation without really being of assistance." Seventy thousand visited the exhibit, ten thousand came to hear the apostle of "honesty, impartiality, and efficiency," and millions read about it and its noonday conferences of taxpayers with officials. New York City is nearer than ever before to confidence in Governor Hughes' closing proposition: "There is always use; we can have what we want if we are for the facts and for whatever the facts call for."

The success of the exhibit and of the budget campaign that began in 1906 has exceeded all anticipations. New York's taxpayers are beginning to realize that they cannot continue to pad payrolls, pay exorbitant profits to favored contractors, charge current expenses to permanent debt, determine the spending of hundreds of millions by pull or the flip of a coin, and, *at the same time*, provide adequate measures for health, comfort, play, safety, and education. The exhibit has helped greatly to show taxpayers the superiority of fact over rhetoric,—to teach them to watch the spending rather than to talk about spenders, to demand business methods wherever the city spends or receives money, to judge taxes by their returns, not their size.

Although the original motive of representative government was to control the purse-strings, party politics, campaign extravaganzas, and American mania for legislation have so exaggerated personality and panaceas that even publicists and municipal reformers have almost forgotten the meaning of the word budget. Press comments, calls to take the New York exhibit to Pittsburg and other cities, show, however, that it will be easy to revive Anglo-Saxon interest in control of government through control of pursestrings, if other cities will duplicate the charts, figures, diagrams, and noonday meetings that led New York to see its "yard of lemons," its six-cent hooks for $2.21, its "spotless town hall" that spends $20,000 on cleaning work worth $1800.

The supreme service of the exhibit was to contrast budget alternatives, making it clear



POINTS ENFORCED BY THE NEW YORK BUDGET EXHIBIT.

(The budget exhibit was held in a lower Broadway building, under the auspices of the Bureau of Municipal Research and the Greater New York Taxpayers' Conference, from October 5 to November 2.)

that through the budget the taxpayer buys either attendance officers or truants; tenement inspection or tuberculosis; school nurses or playgrounds; policemen or burglars; milk inspectors or infant mortality. Among the civic organizations that exhibited were the Allied Real Estate Interests, the Tenement House Committee, the Public Education Association, the Committee on Congestion, the Brooklyn League, the City Club, the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and the State Charities Aid Association. Official exhibitors were the Comptroller, presidents of Brooklyn and Richmond, Health and Tax commissioners, and the public libraries.

The first facts to catch the eye showed that the budget has grown three times as fast as the population; that the annual increase of New York's budget exceeds the budgets of Washington, New Orleans, and Milwaukee, and is ten times the total budget of Atlanta or Kansas City. To guard against blind opposition to bigness, it was conceded that New York may get more for its money than residents of other cities, and that it objects to budget increases only because it has not been getting its money's worth. Photographs and charts showed that the annual budget would not be so great if there were not uncollected taxes amounting to $30 for every man, woman, and child; if valuable properties and privileges had not been sold or let for too little, and if more attention had been given to the city debt, that took $28 of every $100 in taxes for 1908, and cost $7,000,000 of the $13,000,000 increase in the budget for 1909,—$143,500,000 to $156,500,000.

Whereas nine out of ten visitors wanted to punish the men who paid and obtained exorbitant profits, placards and guides tried to convince taxpayers that their protection lies not in vengeance, but in methods that shall automatically describe work done when done, money spent when spent, and get at the men who buy and sell hooks by watching the hook. Everywhere method was emphasized. One chart read: "This simplification means $25,000 less for printing, twenty clerks less, infinitely less opportunity for favoritism and delay, and cash and trade discounts." The Board of Education was asked why it had not applied to the $25,000,000 for salaries and repairs the business principles that will save this year $633,000 on the one-twentieth of its budget that goes to supplies. Comptroller Metz exhibited charts showing how method had reduced damage claims against the city from $5,000,000 to $11,000.

No moralizing is needed for taxpayers who read signs showing "How doth the city-contract man improve each shining hour," with profits of 51 per cent., 106 per cent., 145 per cent., and 273 per cent.; that the same official describing the same payroll for the same day, in two different places, makes a difference of $110,000; that the Board of Education spends money intended for attendance officers for other purposes; that bird-seed, kerosene, nurses' aprons, and day wages had been charged to permanent debt; that 72 per cent. of tenement inspectors' work "consists in reinspection to see if work ordered by the department had been done"; or that the same number of attendants is used in the public baths for 100 bathers as for 5000.

Among the material gains from this budget campaign are: Budget allowances based upon evidence; adoption of the principle that taxpayers should know all that officials know about departmental estimates; a precedent that gives the taxpayer a right to suggest increases or decreases in the allowances of the tentative budget; resolutions that prevent departments from using funds for other purposes than those advertised; resolutions preventing department heads from spending more than one-twelfth of the annual allowance in any one month without special authority and publicity; resolutions preventing arbitrary increases of salary not advertised in the budget; the realization of taxpayers that blind opposition is futile, and that an ounce of fact is worth a ton of vituperation; an abandonment of the idea that the budgets of Borough presidents, Comptroller, Mayor, and Board of Aldermen should be discussed in executive session, rather than in the open; realization that an honest, sane budget is impossible unless records for describing work done when done, and money spent when spent, are in use every day in the year; the reduction of two borough allowances below those for 1908; standardizing of repairs and street-improvement costs; an increase of $169,000 for the removal of school sinks and dark rooms, and for the semi-annual inspection of tenements by the Tenement House Department, that for seven years it has been unable to obtain funds for; a general strengthening of necessary work and reduction of unnecessary work.



THE GOD PAN.
(Bronze heroic figure in the grounds of Columbia College, New York.)

GEORGE GREY BARNARD: A VIRILE AMERICAN SCULPTOR.

THE EXHIBITION AT THE BOSTON MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS.

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT.

AN unusual honor was bestowed on George Grey Barnard when the Boston Museum of Fine Arts opened to the public an exhibition of his works. This gifted American sculptor has recently completed some thirty figures of his decorations for the Pennsylvania capitol at Harrisburg, and several of these are now shown in this country for the first time.

There is probably a greater gain in seeing two dozen of Mr. Barnard's figures together, as in this exhibition, than there would be in seeing a sequence of the work of any other American sculptor, because of all our sculptors he has been the most anxious to make his life's task a succession of related works. The eye may consider such a collection as a sort of chromatic scale, and recognizes its tones and half-tones. And it is to be hoped when the decorations of the Pennsylvania Capitol Building are placed, the spectator will similarly be put attune with their chromatic harmonies. Then a new decade will be marked in American sculpture, for the harmonies of group sculpture have never before been struck in our native art.

In the Boston exhibition more than twenty figures are shown in the tapestry room of the Museum of Fine Arts, while "The Hewer" in marble is set up in Copley Square in front of Trinity Church.

"The Hewer" was quite a revelation to the pedestrians who passed, and aroused civic interest far beyond what the usual statue does. It is not monumental in the ordinary sense of the word. Instead of standing erect, the figure is crouching; instead of standing shoulders back and head tilted, as



GEORGE GREY BARNARD AT WORK ON HIS FIGURE OF "THE HEWER."

(A marble of this is now in Copley Square in front of Trinity Church, Boston. This figure is one that conveys the idea of human potency, the brute energy that the pioneer and in fact all mankind must bring to the surface in his fight with Nature.)

much as to say "admire me," it is intent upon its object,—typifying the primitive man, the pioneer, hewing the wood of the forest with a stone-age axe. "The Hewer" seen in the strong sunlight in Copley Square was certainly imposing. The effect on the people who saw it was tonic. They realized that the figure had life, and virility, that for once, at least, sculpture was able to speak to them. White as the marble was, it did not seem so cold, so formal as the usual sculpture. "Just see the veins on that arm; the man seems alive," said a street cleaner, as he stopped a moment to admire the figure. It seems as though Mr. Barnard has power to bring out that part of the human form which the layman can understand.

A feature of Mr. Barnard's work which differs from that of other sculptors, especially very successful sculptors, is that it is often more autographic than theirs. He frequently makes his enlarged clay figures from his small sketches, and always finishes them part by part with his own hands.

As a result of this autographic process, the details in his work usually tell with exceptional force. Indeed, Mr. Barnard's theory of art requires that the spectator should be able to appreciate the passages in his work that he has modeled with such arduous labor.



PART OF THE GROUP OF "THE UNBROKEN LAW."

(Plaster. In the Harrisburg decoration. To our left we see the "Brothers," typical, perhaps, of the Good Samaritan feeling in mankind; and to our right a group typical of "Parenthood.")



"YOUTH."

(Plaster. From "The Broken Law" group of the Harrisburg decoration. The outstretched arm and hand in this figure is destined, we prophesy, to become one of the striking sculptural fragments in American art. The pose is a climax.).

For it is by means of these passages that the light is brought to play upon his forms, and his idiom of expression, which is light, is only understood through these passages.

His latest composition is a bas-relief of the "Crucifixion." Here he worked on a green-painted door panel in terra cotta modeling wax, with all the thoroughness and accuracy of a Cellini. We feel sure on looking at his forceful and correct modeling that the sculptor has his art literally at his finger's end.

While the Harrisburg decorations will be Mr. Barnard's crowning work, a series of groups cut round a marble "Urn of Life" (1897) shows his sensitiveness for sculptural beauty to the very highest degree. Though small in size, perhaps some two feet high, they are not miniature medallions, but they seem to be heroic groups in miniature. One group is called "The Visitation,"—"The Angel of Life holding a new born babe; a husband kissing the brow of his wife; a man hewing out another wing of the angel,—the only way we get our wings." Another is "A family group,—a father standing, and mother with a babe," another "Solitude,"—a sort of Adam and Eve composition, and another is "The Dying Poet."

In these groups Mr. Barnard has utilized the technique of marble-cutting to its utmost. Michelangelo, himself, never employed the effect of reflected light more knowingly. In "The Visitation" the man who is hewing out the angel's wing looks intently toward the marble, and at times, as the light in the room changes, his face becomes a beautiful, clear-cut silhouette; at other times it is illuminated by the reflection from the white marble around it, so that it seems fairly bathed in some supernatural aureole. Thus the illuminating transcends that of most sculpture just as the illumination of Christ's head in Rembrandt's "Supper at Emmaus" transcends the average luminosity found in oil paintings. Light has always interested Mr. Barnard. Most knowledge, most cognition he feels, comes through light, and he



"MOTHER."

(Plaster. From "The Broken Law" group of the Harrisburg decoration. The child in the left arm is not wrought out in this model. This figure suggests the loneliness of women who bear sorrow without sympathy. Antithetic to the "Parenthood" group.)



PART OF THE GROUP OF "THE BROKEN LAW."

(Plaster. In the Harrisburg decoration. To our left the front view of the fallen "Youth"; next the "Burden Bearer"; next the "Résumé" of the group, a figure that might be called the "Lost Soul" or "Annihilation"; then the "still small voice," whispering hope.)

makes all his art to be read through light, so that sharp edges are absent in his groups.

In the Harrisburg decorations Mr. Barnard has evinced certain romantic tendencies. He has set aside Lessing's dicta that two conflicting emotions should not appear in one group of sculpture, and has, on the contrary, given his emotions full reign, and let come what will, in the final adjustment of parts,—his standpoint being that a decoration on a capitol built by the people and for the people, should give back a message to the people.

The dominant themes that will strike one on approaching the front of the Capitol Building will be "The Unbroken Law," or "Labor at Rest," or "Love and Labor," on the left of the entrance, while on the right, one will see "The Broken Law," or "The Paradise that fails because it is not the fruit of man's labor."

Each subject consists of a bas-relief and a projecting group. On the left-hand side of the doorway will be a bas-relief showing the figure of a man resting on his scythe surrounded by sheaves of wheat, which symbolizes "Thou shalt earn thy bread by the sweat of thy brow." Below the bas-relief will be a projecting group, "The Unbroken Law," in which we shall find the "Parenthood," and the "Brothers" figures seen in our illustration, while on the right hand will be the bas-relief of the "Lost Paradise," with an Adam and Eve figure and a large peacock,—an emblem of human vanity,—and below the group of "The Broken Law," in which we see a fallen "Youth," and then a "Burden Bearer." The résumé of this group is a figure of a man who has lost all power of going onward. This might be called the "Lost Soul" or "Annihilation," but the figure next it that whispers is the "still small voice" that seems to say all is not necessarily lost, that complete annihilation need not be, but that the hope in Pandora's box always remains.

The antithesis of this is the résumé of the "Labor at Rest" group. "A Youth and Maiden" full of hope and resolution looking out upon life's prospect, their mouths partly open, the poses signifying aspiration.

There is in Mr. Barnard's present work an execution that reminds us of the Greeks at their best. A directness of appeal that belongs to all great art. Some of his figures, as the fallen "Youth" and the lonely "Mother," are almost as hieratic as the figures on an Egyptian tomb.

The "Burden Bearer" is not quite so simple in the silhouette it makes, but though without athletic contortions, it appeals to us with a directness as being a sort of "Atlas," typifying in marble, perhaps, the vicarious sufferings of mankind, as is typified by Kipling in his poem, "The Sons of Martha,"—"They have cast their burden upon the Lord, and—the Lord He lays it on Martha's Sons."

ALASKA'S RAILROAD DEVELOPMENT.

BY FREDERICK H. CHASE.

ALASKA has more gold than ever had California, Australia, or South Africa; it has more copper than twenty Buttes; it has more hard coal than Pennsylvania, and it has more tin than Wales. The hay that rots on its tundras and plains would fatten all the cattle that roam upon the prairies of Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas. And there the wild, fertile, untouched plains and valleys await the ax, the spade, the plow, and the reaper of half a million American farmers and gardeners.

And yet this virgin empire remains virtually landlocked for nearly 1000 miles along its Pacific coast. For a distance of nearly 100 miles from the coast inland the country is so rugged that it is almost as cheap to build a railroad as a wagon road. The great river system of this empire flows northward into seas ice-locked for seven months of the year. The heart of this wonderland is closed to all the great possible channels of commerce, except railroads, which must be built in the immediate future, yea, which are now being actually constructed from its ice-free Pacific harbors. In the mountain walls along this coast there have been found at least three and perhaps four sufficient depressions or passes for railroad construction to the fertile, grassy plains of the Yukon, the Tanana, and the Susitna. It has been said that a railroad constructed from, say, Valdez



ALASKA AND THE CANADIAN YUKON REGION.
(Showing existing and projected railroad lines.)

to the heart of the great Yukon Valley would in time be worth its weight in gold in every ton of its rails and rolling stock. Be this an artistic exaggeration, it is certain, however, no projected railroad on the map of the world at this moment possesses more alluring possibilities.

ROADS NOW UNDER CONSTRUCTION.

But strange as it may seem, these very alluring possibilities have, it is alleged, until now, tended rather to retard than hasten the building of such a road. The fact has greatly exasperated many patriotic Alaskans and it is chiefly responsible for the clamor that has been raised among them for local self-government. The inception and halting progress of these so much needed railroads reveal the fact, it is declared, that the development of Alaska is being hindered by certain interests in Wall Street. It is not, however, the purpose of this article to go further into that phase of the situation than the presentation of facts that bear directly on actual projection and construction of important railroads in Alaska.

Roads at three separate points on the Pacific Coast are projected and are now being constructed to reach the Yukon country. These roads are the Alaska Central at Seward City, at the head of Resurrection Bay; the Valdez-Yukon Railway at the head of Port Valdez, and the Copper River & Northwestern Railroad at Cordova, on Cordova Bay. These three points are within a radius of 200 miles on Prince William Sound. The completion of any one of these three roads to Fairbanks, the metropolis of the Tanana Valley, or to Eagle City on the Yukon River, near the boundary line between Alaska and the Canadian Northwest, means the development of three or four agricultural and mining States like Iowa, Minnesota, the Dakotas, and Montana in central Alaska.

HEADING FOR THE COPPER-FIELDS.

But the builders of all these roads have in view something far less remote than the possibilities of central Alaska. They are all aiming first to secure the enormous freight tonnage that must result from the tapping of the great copper belt and coal-fields that almost parallel the coast for 150 miles, beginning with the islands on Prince William Sound, extending northeast across the Copper River to Mount Wrangell, Alaska's sole active interior volcano. These are the richest known copper-fields in the world. In an area of some 200 miles there is in sight what competent mineralogists estimate as $1,000,000,000 worth of copper. There is scarcely an explored district ten miles square within this entire belt that does not show more or less high-grade ore.

But copper is a rich man's mine. It requires large capital to be worked with profit, and Alaskans claim that the gigantic Smelter Trust of the United States has gone into this rich region and not only secured control of all the bonanza properties it could lay its hands upon, but that by suppression and misrepresentation of facts it has until recently made it difficult to get capital for railroad construction from any of these points. Not only, they say, has it scared away private capital, but it has prevented the United States Government from giving Alaska that substantial aid in railroad subsidies that President Roosevelt and other high officials have so earnestly recommended. And all for what? That it might keep the rich Alaska copper out of the market until it had exhausted the low-grade ores in its mines in the United States and Mexico.

An English syndicate has recently obtained an option on all of the holdings of the Hubbard & Elliott Copper Company, the Alaska Consolidated Copper Company, and the Valdez-Yukon Railway, which railway was being constructed by the latter-named company. The option calls for $30,500,000, upon satisfactory reports from experts now on the ground.

Failing longer to hold up this development, the Smelter Trust has at last reluctantly plunged into the Alaskan field, and is now busy in constructing the Copper River & Northwestern Railroad from Cordova Bay up the Copper River Valley. At the town of Cordova it is stated that the trust will locate its huge smelters.

DIGGING UNDER GLACIERS.

Copper River is delta-like at its mouth as it flows into Prince William Sound. It cuts a rather broad, low gap through the coast range, and it is through this gap on opposite sides of the river that two roads, the one from Cordova, the other from Katella, about forty miles south on Prince William Sound, are ascending the valley. Near the latter place has been found a rich coal deposit, but the town has an impossible harbor; therefore the Katella road is being constructed to join the Cordova road so that the smelters may be



DRIVING THE FIRST SPIKE IN THE VALDEZ-YUKON RAILROAD, AUGUST 10, 1906.

enabled to use this coal. The Cordova road will be compelled to cross the tortuous river at three points in the neighborhood of Abercrombie Rapids and Baird's Canyon. At one point the abutment of a bridge is against a shifting glacier, and the engineers have had to dig down 100 feet through ice to get a permanent foundation. One of the consulting engineers estimates that the cost of this bridge will exceed $2,000,000. It will, when completed, be the most expensive railroad bridge of its length and character in the world. In Baird's Canyon, through which the railroad must pass, the wind blows a gale of fifty miles an hour for days at a time. In the gorges here the snow slides in from the mountain sides, filling the canyon and packing as hard as ice.

RICHNESS OF THE ORE DEPOSITS.

The Cordova road will terminate for the present just above Baird's Canyon, where the stern-wheel, light-draft steamers with scows in tow will bring the ore down the river from the Wrangell district, out of which flow a score of lusty tributaries of the Copper River. Within two years the world is likely to behold the most gigantic of all mining industries in this valley and along these mountain sides, for there is an area twelve by fifty miles within the district, bounded on the north by Elliott Creek, where there are mountains ribbed with veins of the highest-grade copper ever located in commercial quantities, and even veins of pure copper. I myself have found a sheet of native copper one-half inch thick projecting out a foot from the face of a cliff where the country rock had eroded away from it. On Nugget Creek is located a nugget of pure copper over seven feet long and weighing about three tons, which if possible will be exhibited at the Alaska-Yukon Exposition in Seattle in 1909. The gravels of all the valleys are full of copper nuggets from the size of a pea to a pumpkin. In many instances veins of twenty feet in width and traceable for miles have been found. Most of these ores range in value from 20 to 30 per cent. copper, and many carry as high as $20 and $30 in gold and silver in addition. One or two bonanza properties have uncovered large bodies of ore with 60 to 70 per cent. copper.

COMPETING LINES.

But fortunately the Smelter Trust does not hold a controlling interest in this vast mineral wealth. It is owned by a score or more of independent big companies and several thousand individuals in Alaska and throughout the United States, and the Copper River & Northwestern Railroad has a most probable competitor in the Valdez-Yukon Railway, projected from the town of Valdez to the Copper River, with a spur crossing the river at Tonsina or thereabouts to get into the Wrangell copper district, the main line passing up the valley to Copper Centre. From Copper Centre it is the intention to extend the Valdez-Yukon Railway in two directions, one line going to Eagle City on the Yukon, and the other going to Fairbanks, the Chicago of Alaska. If the Valdez-Yukon Railway is thus built as planned it will be to Alaska what the New York Central or the Pennsylvania is to the United States, for as Fairbanks is Alaska's Chicago so is Valdez its New York.

Valdez is the best harbor and town site on the coast of Alaska, and the traveler could reach Fairbanks or Eagle City from Seattle by way of Valdez and the Valdez-Yukon Railway a day sooner than by Seward. The Valdez route is all of four days nearer Eagle City and six days nearer Fairbanks than by way of Skagway and the White Pass Railway. From Valdez to Fairbanks by the Valdez-Yukon Railway it is about 350 miles, and to Eagle City about 450 miles.

VALDEZ AS A RAILROAD CENTER.

But as yet there is only a short section of the Valdez-Yukon Railway finished, notwithstanding the fact that no town the size of this one has projected or attempted to build so many railroads in so short a time. The Valdez population of 2000 for the past seven years has talked of nothing but railroads and copper mines. There is scarcely a man or a woman in the town who does not own a copper claim. Two barbers in Valdez have been engaged in shaving faces and cutting hair in order to earn sufficient money to pay the $100 worth of work required by law on each claim annually, which means the saving of claims worth millions when the railroads are completed.

John Roesene, an Indianapolis barber, reached Seattle a few years ago with money enough to get to Dawson, where he made a "strike." He returned to Seattle and with his remarkable gift for organization formed the Northwestern Steamship Company, one of the present lines to Valdez. He then went to Valdez and projected the Copper River & Northern Railroad and at once began construction. A Boston man by the name of Reynolds in the meantime organized the Alaska Home Railway Company and also began construction. Trouble at once arose over the right of way, and one of the illustrations in this article shows the spot where two men were killed in a battle between the two companies. This place is very near to the entrance to Keystone Canyon, the key to the whole railroad problem at Valdez.

The town stands on a level gravel plain at the head of the beautiful bay, with a background of lofty mountains and glistening glaciers. Keystone Canyon, cut by the passage of the Lowe River, is the only pass here in the coast range. The government trail from Valdez to all points in the interior leads up this canyon, and a railroad cannot get out of Valdez without using the canyon. This only right of way is therefore very valuable. The people of Valdez believe that Roesene in his fight was backed by the Smelter Trust, but the efforts of both companies, like all of those who have preceded them, proved abortive.

The task of tracking this canyon with rails is tremendous, but by no means impossible. Congress has appropriated $40,000 to build a wagon road along one section of the canyon to connect with Thompson Pass over the mountain. The Valdez-Yukon will have to spend more than $2,000,000 along this pass of less than three miles, for the road to be of service the year round must be built high up on the face of the hard, precipitous cliffs, which at some points tower from 1000 to 2000 feet above the rushing stream below. This company now practically has the whole field to itself, and has resumed construction in earnest with an estimated cost of $40,000 per mile. It is a York, Pa., company.

THE ALASKA CENTRAL REACHING FOR COAL.

The longest section of completed railroad in Alaska is the Alaska Central from Seward to the head of Turnagain Arm, a distance of fifty-three miles. Seward may be reckoned commercially the Boston of Alaska. It is about 150 miles to the west and south of Valdez, and some fifteen hours further from Seattle. It is the entrepôt for the fertile Susitna Valley and the Matanuska coal-fields. The primary purpose in building the road



THE COPPER RIVER AND NORTHWESTERN CUT ON THE HOME RAILWAY.
(In this cut, near the tent, occurred the shooting of the Home Railway men, as noted in the text.)

was to lay down the excellent hard coal of Matanuska on the wharves at Seward, where it could be shipped to Seattle and San Francisco for less per ton than the Pennsylvania or the Pocahontas of Virginia.

This purpose has not yet been realized, for the completed section of the road terminates nearly 100 miles from the Matanuska fields. A Chicago syndicate headed by A. C. Frost built the road thus far at a tremendous expense per mile. It cost over $50 per ton to buy and ship the rails to Seward. The labor was paid for at $4 and $5 per day, and even at these figures men would work only long enough to earn a "grub stake" so that they could go prospecting nearby and perhaps discover ground that would pay them $20 per day.

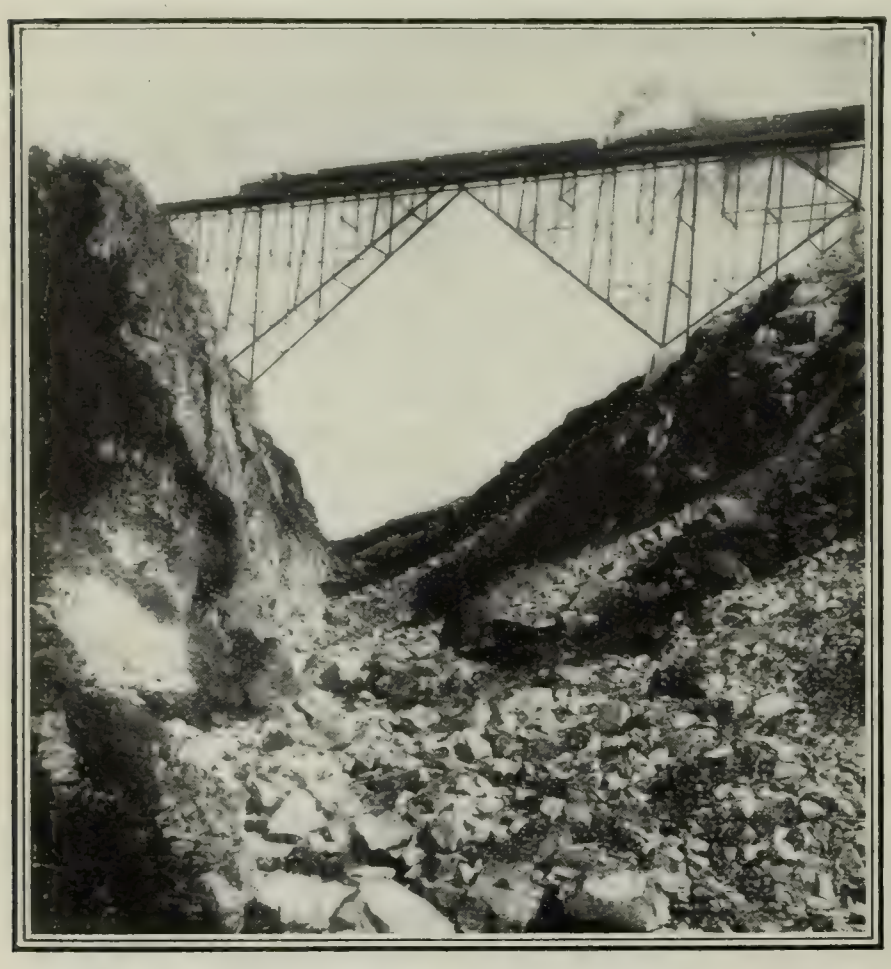
The road traverses open meadows and dense forests in going up Resurrection Valley, and it has only a maximum of 2 per cent. grade per mile. There is but little costly or difficult engineering work on the part completed. But now at the present northern terminus, where the road to proceed must pass around the head of Turnagain Arm, a number of shifting glacier streams must be bridged. After passing the arm the road must proceed along the northern shore, and as the mountains are precipitous right down to the water's edge, a great deal of expensive rock work is necessary, besides many dizzy trestles to bridge the different canyons breaking through the mountains as outlets for the boisterous streams flowing into the arm. Turnagain Arm is an arm of Cook's Inlet, about 100 miles long and from four to six miles wide, and cannot be bridged. Its tide behaves much the same as the tide in the famous Bay of Fundy. When the tide goes out the bottom of soft blue mud is left bare. But the tide returns in a wave or "bore" sometimes ten feet high, reaching from shore to shore, and sweeping everything before it.

The coal in the Chickaloon Valley is one of the richest deposits in the world. One may view a geological phenomenon on the Chickaloon River that nature has provided nowhere else. At certain points the banks of the river rise into towering bluffs of anthracite coal. With a pick and a shovel the miner can fill his boat, and float down into the Matanuska and into Cook's Inlet. The efforts of certain corporations to control the coal-fields

in this region and in other parts of Alaska have been so active in the past three years that more than a year ago President Roosevelt deemed it his duty to withdraw the government coal-lands from claim entries. Alaska was in danger of having repeated in it the coal history of Pennsylvania. This official act has, however, in no way discredited the Alaska Central Railway, which is to-day handicapped by nature and a stringent money market. This road is certain to play an important part in the development of central Alaska. Its ultimate northern terminus is some point on the Tanana River. In time it is likely to connect with the Valdez-Yukon Railway, and some day from the southeast will come the White Pass & Yukon to central Alaska.

THE COSTLIEST ROAD EVER BUILT.

The White Pass & Yukon, which connects Skagway on the Pacific coast with White Horse, the head of navigation on the Yukon River, is said to be one of the most unique roads on the planet. It is certainly one of the best-paying roads in the world, and yet most of its freight cars go south empty, but freight rates are high enough going in to more than offset this. It was the most expensive railroad ever built, some sections of it costing $75,000 to $100,000 per mile. Many of its bridges are ethereal, picturesque structures. To get over the famous White Pass and also avoid the White Horse Rapids and Miles Canyon, where many lives and much property have been lost, have made necessary the construction of this remarkable road.



THE STEEL ARCH BRIDGE ON THE WHITE PASS & YUKON RAILWAY.

FARMING POSSIBILITIES.

There is enough of rich placer and latent quartz mining in Alaska to employ 500,000 miners for the next quarter of a century. There is enough coal, copper, and other minerals to employ another 500,000. But a purely mining population does not build country homes, macadamized highways, and beautiful cities. Alaska must look to its seed-growing soil for these things. It must look to the fertility of its plains to help support its fast steaming railways and to found a high civilization for its hardy pioneers. What ground is there for the prophecy that this cold northern empire has in gestation three or four great States like Iowa, Minnesota, and Michigan? It has three magnificent valleys, much of which is covered with lumber-bearing forests of spruce, birch, poplar, and cottonwood. All of its great interior has a splendid summer of continuous daylight. Nearly all kinds of temperature-zone vegetables flourish there. From actual figures the value of the product from truck farms around the city of Fairbanks last year was $50,000. Next year will show a big increase, as many more persons are going into the business. Wheat, oats, and barley have matured at Rampart, not far from the Arctic Circle. From this point in the far north down through all the valleys to the southern coast, where the climate is tempered by the Japan current, many of the field and garden crops of the Northern States will grow with profit.

The United States Government has distributed



THE PRESENT METHOD OF GETTING SUPPLIES FROM VALDEZ OVER THOMPSON PASS TO THE COPPER FIELDS.

large quantities of farm and garden seed to settlers in these valleys with excellent results. At Copper Centre is a Government agricultural station, where wheat, oats, and barley, and nearly all the garden vegetables, grow to wonderful perfection. I have seen vast areas of blue grass equal in quality and as luxuriant as that in Kentucky. Central Alaska must attract the stock-grower and farmer as soon as the railroad gets there. The next great homestead rush on this continent will be to its plains and valleys. Once it is opened to the sea it will grow faster than Northwestern Canada, for here is room for 500,000 prosperous farms and homes under the American flag.

THE COAL RESOURCES OF ALASKA.

BY GUY ELLIOTT MITCHELL.

INVESTIGATION of the possible coal resources of unknown Alaska was begun by the United States Geological Survey somewhat more than six years ago. In spite of the fact that Alaska covers nearly 600,000 square miles of territory,—most of it prior to the Survey's investigations an unknown wilderness,—more than 8,000,000 acres of coal-bearing lands has been discovered and surveyed in more or less detail. Further explorations and surveys may be even richer in results. Alfred H. Brooks, geologist, Alaskan explorer, and chief of the division of Alaskan Mineral Resources of the Geological Survey, returned to Washington a few days ago from a field season in the giant young Territory.

"One hundred and fifty thousand square miles of Alaskan territory," said Mr. Brooks, in conversing on Alaskan coals, "an area as great as that of New England, New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio combined, is yet practically an unknown land, a *terra incognita* so far as its useful and precious minerals are concerned. As for coal, we know that it exists in this little-explored region. It is not impossible that there are coal-fields hundreds of miles in extent which may add billions of tons to the Alaskan coal reserve. As an example, a reconnaissance has been made by one of our geological parties of the Cape Lisburne coal-fields in northwest Alaska which brought to light large deposits of good coal. The geologic indica-

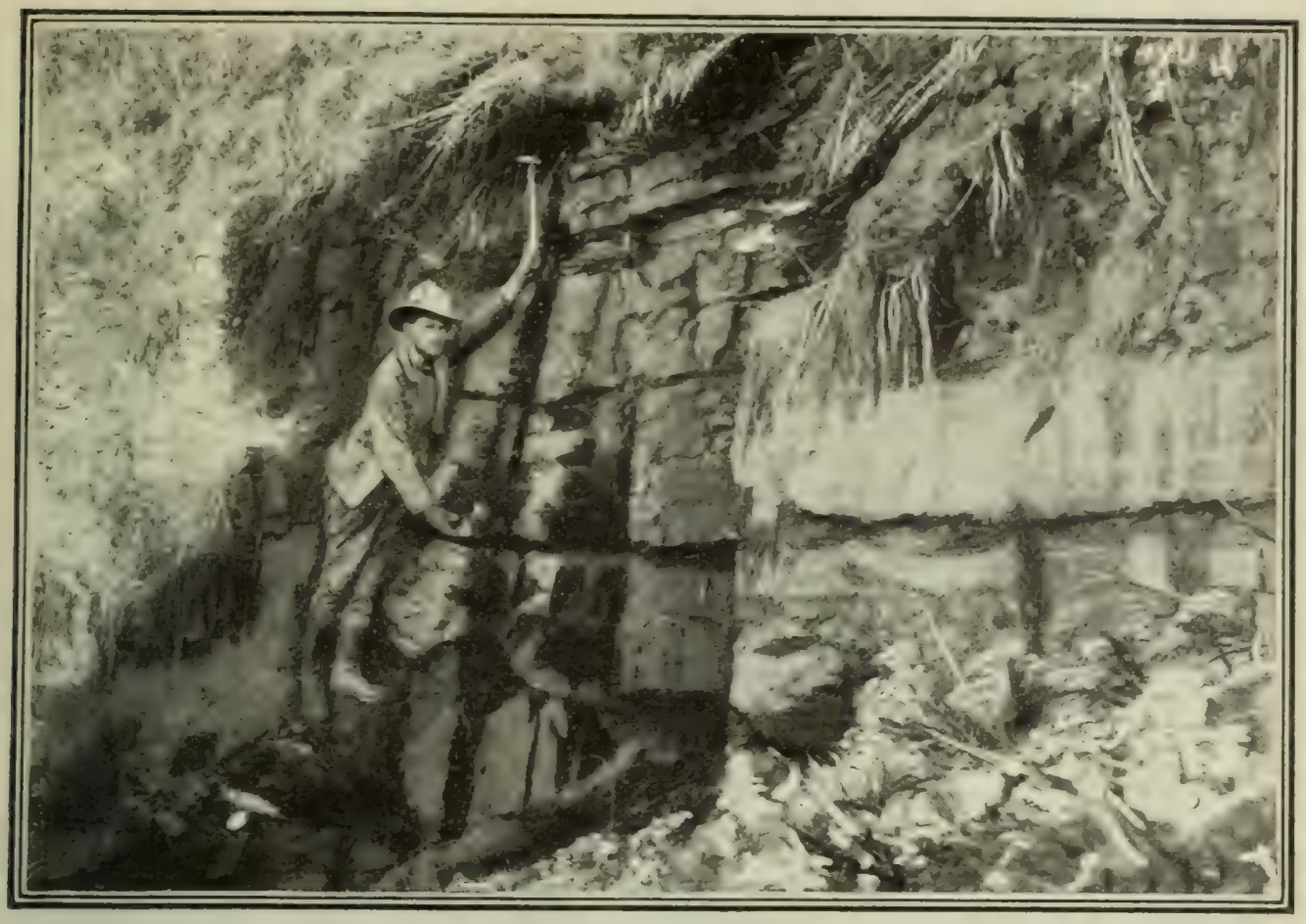


MAP OF ALASKA, SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF COAL AND COAL-BEARING ROCKS, SO FAR AS KNOWN.

tions are that this is only the western end of what is probably an extensive coal area, but of which we have no specific knowledge. With so much to be learned of Alaska it would not surprise me if its ultimate coal area should prove double that now known."

A preliminary statement of the known coal resources of Alaska is now being prepared for the Conservation Commission. It can hardly be other than an exceedingly favorable showing. A study of the Alaskan coal reports already published by the Survey shows a dozen or more extensive coal-fields, ranging from lignite to coal of as good a grade as the famous Pocahontas coking coal of West Virginia. The area of Alaskan coking coal is considerable. This coal, it may be noted, is of the greatest value in a metalliferous region, where it is needed for ore-reduction processes. It is thus of higher importance than anthracite, and Alaska, too, has her anthracite coal. Some of the coal-layers are of huge dimensions. Mr. Brooks states that he has observed "swells" in coal seams, sixty feet thick of solid coal. A glance at the map will show that some of the coal deposits are favorably located (with some railroad construction) to enable water shipment to the Pacific Coast of the United States, where good coal is a scarce article. Two railroads are in course of construction from Alaskan coast points to important coal-fields, —one from Seward, on the Kenai Peninsula, to the high-grade Matsanuska bituminous and coking coals, and the other from Cordova, on Prince William's Sound, to the Controller Bay fields. Both of these lines are destined to pass on through the coal-fields and tap the gold and copper regions of Fairbanks and the Copper River, respectively, lying beyond. With this development vessels taking coal south will be assured of return cargoes to supply the large needs of the country lying beyond the coal mines. Work on both of these roads is well advanced.

"The vast mineral resources of Alaska," said Mr. Brooks, "are but just beginning to be appreciated. The precious and useful minerals are well represented. Coal is but one of the Territory's sources of wealth in the class of useful minerals. One of the investigations now in hand by the Survey is a preliminary summary of Alaska's coal deposits, but it will be truly preliminary, because in reality we are just beginning. The Survey geologists will furnish the Conserva-



COAL OUTCROP, COOK'S INLET.
(Seam about nine feet thick.)

tion Commission an estimate of the number of tons of coal in the Alaska beds, but as further geologic investigation progresses this will be subject to continual change and increase.

"The occurrence of good coking coal is of prime importance. Back of the Controller coking-coal fields lie the copper deposits of the Copper River region, and when railroads connect these two localities, bringing fuel and metal together, and when they enter the placer regions, then may be looked for something like a full development of Alaska's resources."

Through the energy of Secretary Seward, as every schoolboy knows, Alaska was purchased from Russia for $7,200,000. Seward was reviled for consummating a worthless bargain. Tardily enough the name of this far-seeing statesman was fixed upon a portion of the great Territory,—Seward Peninsula, —named by Mr. Brooks in 1899. The annual gold output of this small section of Alaska is just about the purchase price of the entire Territory, and geologists say that this contribution promises to remain fairly constant for many years to come. But aside from this, Seward Peninsula has coal, and this may prove an important factor in the gold production of the Peninsula. The Chicago Creek mine, in the eastern part of the Peninsula, has for several years been worked in a small way for local consumption, and has been an important source of fuel in this timberless region. At the same time there is great need of power for working the placer gold fields located in the general vicinity of this coal mine, from ten to one hundred or more miles distant. Plans are now being considered to establish a big power plant at the Chicago Creek coal mine and transmit power to these various fields. This is, of course, no more than has been done in numerous instances in various parts of the country. If the place proves feasible it should add enormously to the gold output of the region, and should it be a success the lignitic coals of the inland region may eventually be similarly utilized to cheapen the cost of mining by supplying power to some of the Yukon gold-fields.

Stated chronologically, the work of the Government in determining Alaska's coal wealth began in 1902, when the Geological

Survey began its systematic study of Alaskan fuels, starting with a geologic reconnaissance of the low-grade bituminous and lignite coals of the Yukon region. In 1902 and 1905 investigations were made of the Nenana fields near Fairbanks. In 1903 work was begun on the coal-fields of the Controller Bay region, and the field was surveyed in detail in 1905 and 1906 and maps published. In 1904 work was done in the coal-fields of the Alaskan Peninsula at Chignig, and geologic reconnaissance work has been completed there during the past season. In 1905 and 1906 the Matsanuska field was covered by geologic reconnaissance work. In the Matsanuska and the Controller Bay fields there are about 100 square miles of lands underlain by workable coals containing anthracite and bituminous fuels of the highest grade. In 1905 the Herendeen Bay coal region was studied by Survey geologists, and during the past season reconnaissance work has been completed in this soft-coal field. In 1903 coal investigations were made of the southeastern Alaska coal-fields, but these have not, however, proved of any particular economic importance. In 1904 the geologic study of the Cape Lisburne coal region was begun. This is a bituminous-coal field containing coal ranging from low to high grade, and at present its boundaries are only partially known. In 1904 Survey work was commenced in the large lignite fields of the Kenai Peninsula.

Federal investigations are thus being carried on along definite lines of determining the coal resources of Alaska, not only with relation to local consumption and the stimulation of the Territory's gold production, but with reference to their effect upon the total coal reserve of the country. The work is of especial importance and the showing already made is highly satisfactory because of the comparative lack of large developed coal supplies on the Pacific Coast of the United States.



VALLEY OF SHEEP CREEK, CONTROLLER BAY REGION.

(Showing coal outcrops on the mountain face.)



FIRST TEST OF MANHATTAN'S HIGH-PRESSURE SERVICE, ON WEST STREET, NEW YORK CITY.

(With thirty two-inch nozzles over 30,000 gallons of water per minute, or the capacity of both pumping stations, can be discharged. This is a greater amount than could be secured from all the fire-engines on Manhattan Island.)

HIGH-PRESSURE FIRE PROTECTION.

BY HERBERT T. WADE.

THROUGHOUT the United States there is a general movement further to safeguard the lives and property of the inhabitants of cities by providing more adequate facilities for coping with outbreaks of fire. Typical of this tendency are the extensive high-pressure fire systems recently completed in the lower part of Manhattan and in the business and manufacturing districts of Brooklyn in the city of New York, while smaller installations of varying capacity and design, but with the same object, are either in operation or are under construction elsewhere in the United States. Under the best conditions, as in New York and Philadelphia, these high-pressure water systems are independent, and are used for fire service only, but where the local distributing systems can withstand the strain,—and this is true only of comparatively modern waterworks,—high pressures for fire service can be applied directly to the mains on receipt of an alarm by putting in operation one or more high-power pumps.

When properly designed and constructed these high-pressure fire systems are able to supplant, if not wholly, at least to a very large extent, the ordinary portable steam fire engine with a material gain in efficiency as well as in economy, due to the great mechanical advantage of substituting one central high-power pumping plant for a number of isolated units whose power is limited by the amount of weight that can be drawn by two or three horses or can be self-propelled with sufficient speed.

DANGEROUS RISKS IN AMERICAN CITIES.

In every American city the insurance underwriters state that conditions are such that a fire once started would prove most disastrous, and this has been demonstrated most conclusively in the large conflagrations of recent years. Therefore to strengthen water-supply systems and fire departments is the costly but necessary task that must be performed by the American municipality, and as the high-pressure water service is now considered the most satisfactory and economical way of securing this needed additional fire protection, its development and the method of its installation and use are particularly interesting. And, furthermore, there has resulted very largely a new technique of fire-

fighting, which the firemen must master and develop, as the tools thus placed at their disposal are sufficiently different to involve important innovations in methods.

NEED OF ADEQUATE WATER SUPPLY AND PRESSURE.

It is but a truism that the first essential element of fire protection is an adequate supply of water available at any point in a city where a fire is likely to occur. Now if the pressure on the mains of the city waterworks is sufficient to throw a stream large enough to be effective at the top of the tallest building in the most elevated districts, or to supply sprinkler systems in tall buildings, and the mains themselves are of sufficient size to afford water enough to quench any incipient conflagration, then the matter of fire protection is nearly solved. But these conditions are realized rarely, and especially in the case of the older waterworks, which usually were designed for low pressures and at such have been operated, so that in addition to low-pressure mains and hydrants the water pipes of buildings have been installed only of sufficient strength to withstand the pressures of the days of low structures. Therefore, in order to send the water to the top of a burning building, or to direct streams of sufficient quantity to deal with a fire, it is necessary to raise the pressure by a pump or fire-engine.

Now it is one of the circumstances of American municipal government that water supplies, especially when owned and operated by the cities themselves, have often been allowed to fall behind the natural increase in population, so that throughout the United States there has been experienced a widespread demand for increased water supplies for general service, and in particular for fire protection. Often there may be found in a city either an utter inadequacy of water, or, with an adequate supply, the distribution system may be faulty and insufficient, in which case any number of fire-engines drawing from hydrants fed from a single main, or mains of too small capacity, really can accomplish but little at a fire. Under modern conditions the underwriters demand that the business portions of a city shall be well gridironed with mains at least twelve inches in diameter, and the residential districts with those eight inches in diameter. But in few cities are the requirements met with, and also in few is the water supply adequate for present, not to mention future, needs.

Accordingly, spurred by the reports of insurance men and the demands of fire departments, there has lately been a much-needed effort to increase water supplies, especially those available and essential for fire protection. When this deficiency has been realized, in a number of instances it has been determined not only to provide sufficient water for fire purposes, but by supplying it at comparatively high pressures to make it doubly effective. Furthermore, such a high-pressure system after the first cost of installation serves to cut down municipal expenses by eliminating a large number of fire-engine companies, with their crews and other expenses.

THE USE OF FIRE-BOATS.

The first step toward an independent high-pressure fire service was taken when, in the attempt to secure increased pumping capacity and pressures over those furnished by fire-engines, use was made of large tugboats by cities having extensive and valuable water fronts. Naturally on such boats could be installed boilers, engines, and pumps more powerful than those of horse-drawn fire-engines, and with an unlimited water supply available these fire-boats were found indispensable not only for fires on the water front, but also for those a few blocks distant, to which rubber or cotton hose could be laid from the bulkheads. So effective was this practice that in Cleveland in 1888 a permanent six-inch cast-iron main was laid underground from the river bank a distance of 700 or 800 feet to the top of a nearby bluff in order to utilize the services of a fire-boat. In the next year Milwaukee followed this example and constructed a special pipe line for fire service, and later the idea was taken up by the cities of Detroit and Buffalo. In these cities various extensions of the pipe lines have been made from time to time, and the substitution of permanent pumping stations for the fire-boats has been discussed and doubtless will be adopted ultimately. As a result in Milwaukee there was a 10 per cent. reduction in insurance rates, in Detroit a substantial increase was forestalled, while in Buffalo there was a reduction of 30 cents per $1000 insured, due in part, however, to a new pumping station.

What could be done at the cities on the Great Lakes was equally feasible for those on salt water, and the same idea was taken up in the city of Boston to afford more adequate protection to a district of congested risk near the water front which was filled with ware-



PHILADELPHIA HIGH-PRESSURE FIRE-SERVICE PUMPING STATION.
(The nozzle-holder used by the Philadelphia Fire Department in handling high-pressure streams is shown in the foreground.)

houses containing much valuable merchandise. In 1897-8 there was installed a permanent system of underground cast-iron mains about 5000 feet in length, with suitable valves and hydrants, supplied with harbor water by the fire-boat at its usual berth. As the fire-boat was always under steam it was the work of but a moment on the receipt of an alarm to make connection with the mains and start the pumps, the firemen in the meanwhile having attached their hose to the hydrants at which a pressure of 200 pounds could be secured.

It may be proper to remark here that from the point of view of the engineers the hose is the weak element in any fire-protection project, as the losses due to friction within the hose are far greater than in the mains and act to diminish greatly the pressures at the nozzle, so that a large number of hydrants on a line makes for efficiency. The practice of Boston and the cities on the Great Lakes to use fire-boats for high-pressure service over limited areas has been extensively imitated, and even with the large high-pressure systems of New York and Philadelphia, designed to work ordinarily from a central station, provision is made for connections at pier ends or bulkheads, whereby, if necessary, the pumps of the fire-boats can be brought to bear on the system.

From such small systems the desirability of independent high-pressure fire mains was demonstrated, and it was realized that such distribution systems designed to resist pressures that would throw a stream to the top of any but the tallest buildings of a modern city would be far more effective than attempting to increase the pressures on existing waterworks systems. Furthermore, there was the increased protection against fire that an independent system could give, especially in the case of a city with a water front when the regular water supply failed or proved inadequate, as was the case in the great fire at San Francisco. Now it must be explained that an independent high-pressure fire-main service does not necessarily mean the use of salt or brackish water by those cities whose water fronts are on salt water, for salt water has a corroding effect on pipes and valves, but as a last resort it is necessary that unlimited water, even if it is salt, should be available, and in the New York system, for example,

recourse will be had to it only in the last emergency.

PUTTING ON THE PRESSURE.

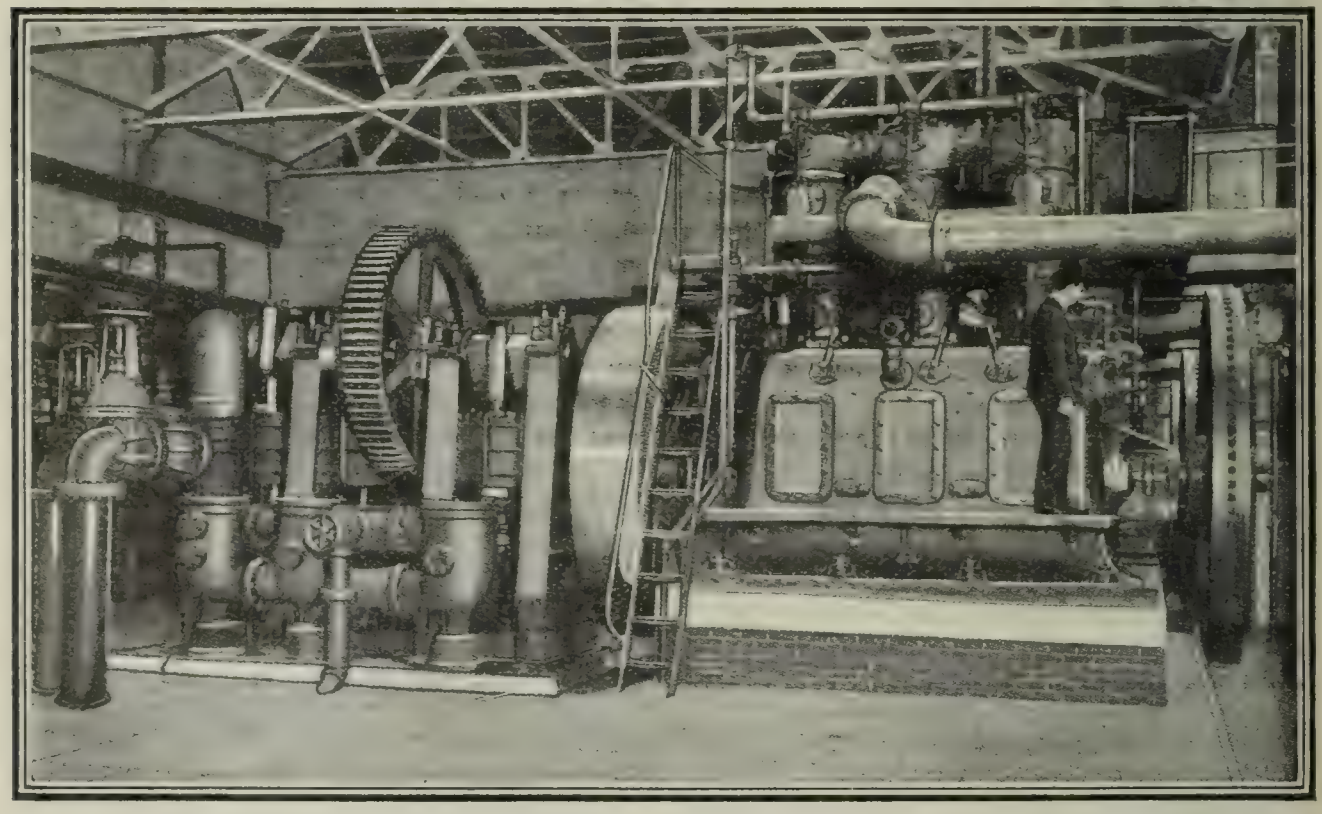
Assuming that there is an adequate supply of water and that the mains of the distribution system are of sufficient size to meet all needs and are so laid as to secure the greatest circulation of water, it is necessary to consider the question of pressure in an auxiliary fire service. As it is only at the time of the fire the pressure is needed, it need not be maintained constantly, unless this is possible by elevated reservoirs, and conditions are satisfied if the pumps can be rapidly brought up to full pressure and capacity. This can be done by keeping constantly in the boilers a small head of steam, or, what is now preferable from the standpoint of mechanical engineering and economy, employing gas or electric motor-driven pumps.

GAS AND ELECTRIC PUMPS.

Aside from their mechanical advantages for such work, power for this class of machinery is always available with proved reliability from great public-service corporations, or city works under conditions that effectively provide against any possible danger of failure through duplication of pipes and conductors and independent or substations in various parts of a city. Gas engines can be put into operation at once, and the pumps working to full capacity in a few minutes, while electric-driven pumps are even more expeditious, so that such a plant is ready always, and in practice is brought up to the desired pressure as soon as the firemen have the hose laid, for the station receives the alarm at the same time as the hose company, and the engines are either started immediately or are held in readiness subject to the order of the chief at the fire. He is in direct telephone communication with the engineer, for it is not every fire that requires a pressure sufficient to send a stream 250 feet into the air, and consequently the operation of the pumps must depend upon circumstances. To such regulation both gas and electric machinery lend themselves readily, and when it is considered that the pumps are only used intermittently the cost of gas for fuel and electric current from a supply station does not figure largely, especially when the saving over the expensive and, mechanically speaking, inefficient fire engine is considered.

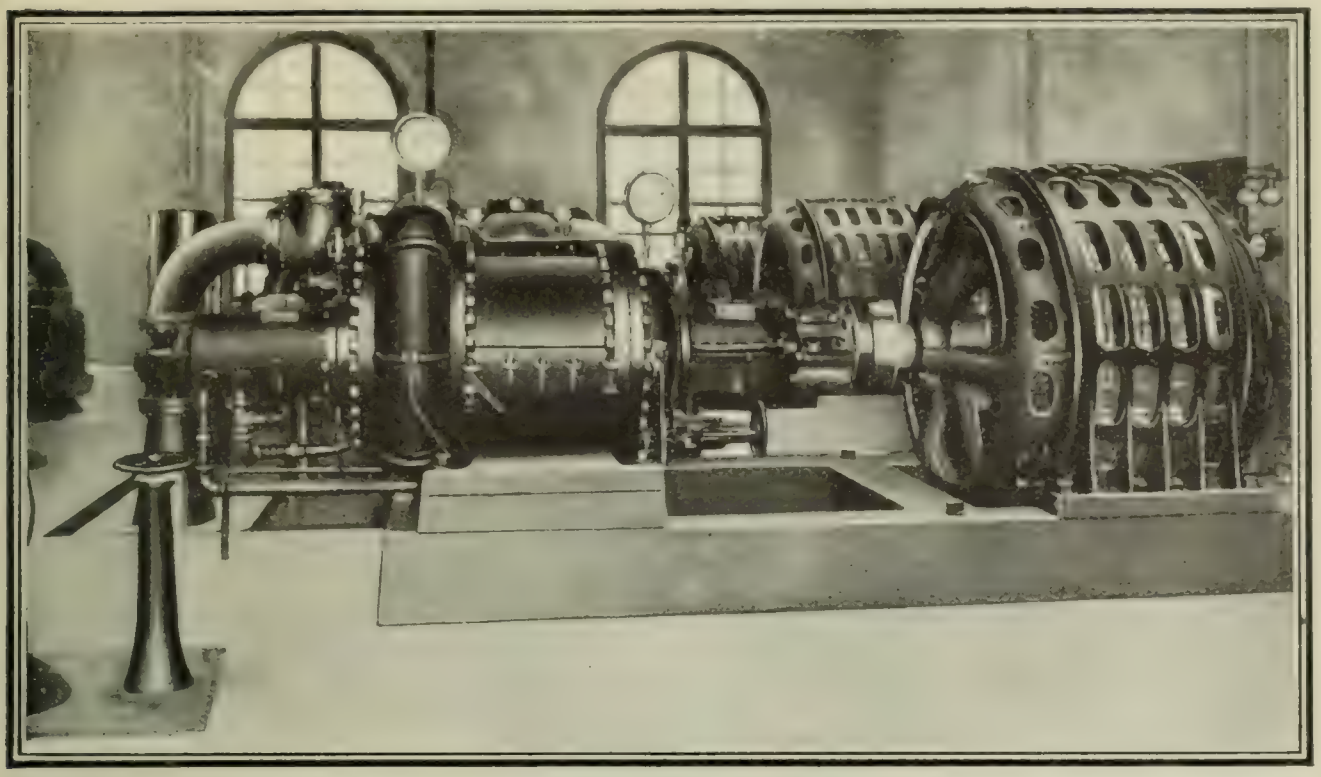
THE PHILADELPHIA SYSTEM.

Thus in Philadelphia, where the first high-pressure system on a large scale and with a permanent central pumping plant was in-



GAS-ENGINE PUMPING UNIT AT THE PHILADELPHIA HIGH-PRESSURE FIRE STATION.

(The illustration shows the engineer in the act of starting one of the seven 300-horsepower Westinghouse-Deane units.)



ELECTRICALLY DRIVEN MULTI-STAGE CENTRIFUGAL PUMP OF NEW YORK HIGH-PRESSURE SERVICE.

(The Allis-Chalmers induction motors and centrifugal pumps here shown can pump over 3000 gallons per minute against a head of 300 pounds per square-inch pressure. The motors are of 880 horsepower and use three-phase twenty-five-cycle alternating current at 6300-6600 volts. There are five units installed in each station.)

stalled in 1904, despite the expressed fears of the underwriters it was decided to use gas engines to operate the pumps, on the ground that the gas system of the city was absolutely reliable and had not failed in forty years. Nine gas engines at the pumping station are direct connected to double-acting triplex plunger pumps, and the plant has a capacity of about 10,000 gallons per minute, which is greater than twenty of the largest engines in the Philadelphia Fire Department. Furthermore, there is a pressure of about 300 pounds to the square inch available, and this in actual practice amounts to about 250 pounds at the hydrant, as compared with 125 pounds realized with fire engines.

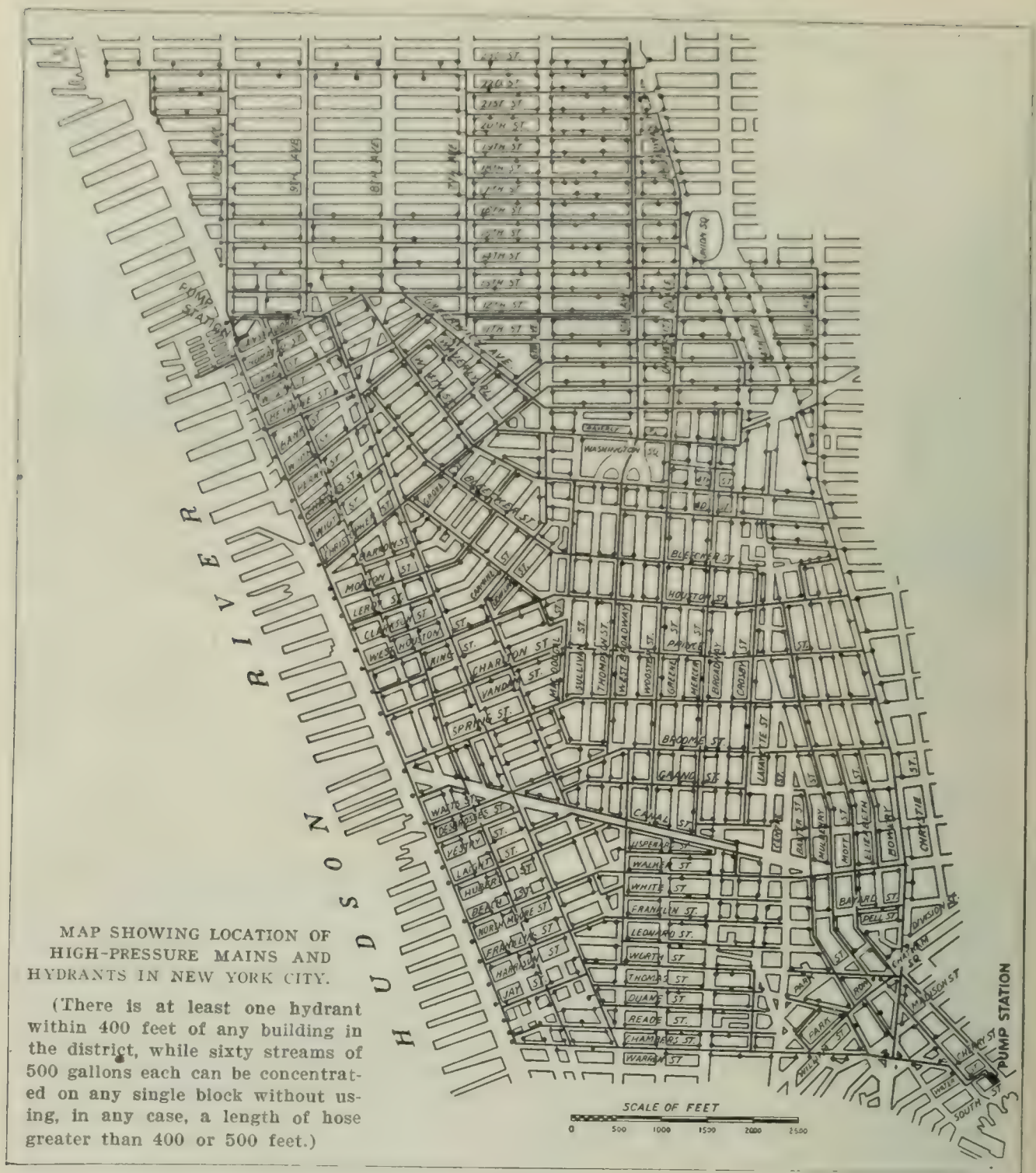
HIGH-PRESSURE SYSTEMS IN GREATER NEW YORK.

With the rapid increase in fire risks that accompanied the development of the new Coney Island it was found necessary to take radical steps for the fire protection of the amusement section, and accordingly, following the example of Philadelphia, a high-pressure system with three gas-driven pumps capable of working up to pressures of 153 pounds, and a capacity of 1500 gallons per minute each, was installed in 1905, and has proved eminently satisfactory in the fires of 1907 and the present year, at which the full capacity was utilized.

But when the water engineers of Greater New York, and more especially the present efficient chief engineer, Mr. I. M. de Varona, came to work out the high-pressure systems for Brooklyn and New York they found that it would be more advantageous to use electric motors to drive the pumping machinery of the central stations. Aside from the ease of operation and reliability of supply,—and in both boroughs central and substations had been developed so as to make fears on this latter score quite groundless,—it was deemed desirable to employ centrifugal or turbine pumps instead of the reciprocating or plunger pumps used at the Philadelphia station, and naturally the electric motor with its rotary motion was by far the best source of power.

THE CENTRIFUGAL PUMPS.

The centrifugal pump was selected for its simplicity and economy as well as for the small space that each unit occupies in the station, and the tests made assure success for the machinery of both plants. The electric motors use three-phase alternating current at 6300-6600 volts and at twenty-five cycles, and the supply in both boroughs is elaborately



MAP SHOWING LOCATION OF HIGH-PRESSURE MAINS AND HYDRANTS IN NEW YORK CITY.

(There is at least one hydrant within 400 feet of any building in the district, while sixty streams of 500 gallons each can be concentrated on any single block without using, in any case, a length of hose greater than 400 or 500 feet.)

protected through the various stations of the Edison Company. Thus should one station of the Edison Company in Brooklyn be put out of action, there would be direct connection with others, with the generating stations of the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company and the New York Edison Company to depend upon finally. Likewise in New York, should the local Edison stations fail it would be possible still to derive current from Brooklyn, and as the feeder mains to the pumping stations are in duplicate and are laid in ducts under ground, it seems almost impossible to conceive of a total interruption of the supply.

THE TERRITORY PROTECTED.

A general view of the protective features of the New York systems is here not out of place.* In Brooklyn the territory thus safeguarded amounts to 1360 acres and is approximately three miles in length, with a width varying from a mile to a few hundred feet. It extends along the East River from the Erie Basin to the Navy Yard and in-

* The author is under obligation to I. M. de Varona, C.E., Chief Engineer, and H. B. Machen, C.E., Assistant Engineer, of the New York City Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity, for information in connection with the New York high-pressure service.

cludes the downtown business section of the borough. There are over twenty-two miles of mains, including five miles of twenty-inch pipe, with special hydrants at frequent intervals. A special telephone system connects the hydrants with the pumping stations and fire headquarters, so that complete communication is maintained throughout the fire and water systems. The main pumping station of the Brooklyn system is located at Joralemon and Furman streets, near the East River, so that the salt water is available, and consists of five units, each capable of pumping 3000 gallons per minute against a pressure of 300 pounds. Auxiliary to this is a second station with three similar units at St. Edward's and Willoughby streets, which can be used as a reserve or as supplemental to the main station. The Brooklyn stations were put into regular operation early in October.



From *Fire and Water Engineering.*

USING THE HIGH-PRESSURE WITH A WATER TOWER.

(The photograph shows the first test of the New York high-pressure fire system in actual service at a fire in a stable on West Twenty-fourth Street. The high-pressure hydrant was connected with the water tower. A single line of hose from a high-pressure hydrant has a greater capacity than the fire-engine shown on the right.)

In Manhattan the problem was naturally more extensive and complicated, as here was a region of congested risks for their extent and character probably unequaled anywhere in the world. It was necessary to increase greatly the fire protection and the amount of water, especially in certain downtown districts, and accordingly it was determined to install a high-pressure fire-main system within the district bounded by Twenty-third Street, Third Avenue, and Bowery, Chambers Street, and the North River, with two pumping stations, one at Oliver and South streets on the East River, and the other at Gansevoort and West streets on the North River. In July of the present year this system was put into operation and involves some sixty-three miles of extra heavy cast-iron mains through which can be forced more water than all the fire-engines in the borough can pump, and, what is more, this supply can be concentrated on any single block. In other words, when the five centrifugal pumps at each station are working together the combined capacity exceeds 30,000 gallons per minute, and space has been left at each station for installing three additional units. The general type of motor and pump is the same as in Brooklyn, and the engineers of Greater New York seemed to have standardized their machinery on a very efficient basis. In the Manhattan system great care has been taken to remedy the previous grave defects of the distribution systems and hydrants. The protected district, which amounts to 1454 acres, or about one-tenth the area of Manhattan Island, is surrounded by twenty-four-inch mains, while mains of that or smaller size down to twelve inches in diameter completely gridiron the district. On these 1272 hydrants are so placed that there is always one within 400 feet of any single building and in sufficient number to enable sixty streams of water, each amounting to 500 gallons, to be brought to bear on any single block without employing hose of greater length than 400 to 500 feet in any case. Thus for the block bounded by

Twenty-third Street, Fifth and Sixth avenues, and Twenty-second Street there are sixteen hydrants available from which in one day, with the pumps working at full capacity, enough water could be obtained to cover the block to a depth of thirty-six feet,—in other words, 5,760,000 cubic feet, or 43,000,000 gallons.

The hydrant used is of improved pattern, in striking contrast with the very antiquated pattern formerly prevalent in New York and having but one or two outlets. Those of the new system have four outlets, one four and one-half inches in diameter, the others each three inches, from which the hose lines are laid directly to the fire.

A NEW METHOD OF FIRE-FIGHTING.

The great pressures present many new features of work for the firemen. With the high-pressure system the engine companies, except those answering first or second alarms outside of the district, are gradually to lose their fire-engines and become hose companies and carry more and stronger hose as well as special nozzles and nozzle-holders in special wagons, for with the higher pressures it is impossible for the firemen unaided to hold the hose, and even with moderate pressures some mechanical device is essential. Accordingly there is employed either a spider-legged arrangement or a nozzle-holder whose prong rests on the pavement. Or the streams may be led to a water tower nozzle or its deck-pipe, or to some form of turret or other nozzle mounted on a tender or battery wagon.



A MODERN HIGH-PRESSURE HYDRANT.

(The engineer of the steam fire-engine is now stationed at the hydrant to operate the valves.)

Despite the direct telephone communication between the fire and the engineer of the pumping plant, there is not at present sufficient means of regulating the pressures at hydrant or nozzle, since often it is desirable to send a man with a single line of hose to some interior point of vantage, and the pressure on that particular line should not be greater than he is able to handle effectively, notwithstanding the greater pressures used on other lines.

The devising of some satisfactory regulating valve is now engrossing the attention of fire and water department engineers, and it seems to be between the hydrant and the nozzle that the only unsolved engineering problems are to be encountered. But it must be borne in mind that it is only in the case of the most serious fires or a general conflagration that the maximum pressures will be used, and that in many instances fires in the business districts will be fought largely with the aid of standpipes and other apparatus installed in the buildings. For under modern conditions a fire must be fought at close range and preferably from inside, and the firemen can connect the high-pressure hydrant with the building standpipe and have sufficient water to apply directly when once it is possible to regulate the pressure satisfactorily.

ACTUAL TESTS OF THE NEW YORK SYSTEM.

Hardly had the Manhattan high-pressure service of New York City been completed and tested, when it was put into actual service, and on July 9 it was first used in connection with a water tower at a fire at Tenth Avenue and Twenty-fourth Street, two blocks outside of the protected district. Again, for a second time, it was put in operation for a fire in a large six-story building at Broadway and Bond Street, where so much water was delivered that it had to be shut off to enable the firemen working with the low-pressure lines to withdraw from the position they had taken. Chief Edward F. Croker, watching the successful operation of the new system, remarked: "I guess we won't have many more three-alarm fires." On September 11, at the fire of the Morgan (Sapolio) Works, the new system was used with thirteen lines of hose, and only eight out of twenty engines answering alarms were called into use. The fire was duly put out.



HANDLING THE HIGH-PRESSURE STREAMS WITH WATER TOWER AND SPECIAL HOSE WAGONS WITH TURRET NOZZLES.

(In a test of the New York high-pressure service the firemen were able to throw powerful streams well above the twelve-story building of the Western Electric Company shown in the illustration. Two hose lines were "siamesed" for the high nozzle and deck pipe of the water tower and also for the turret nozzles of the hose wagons. These devices permit of powerful streams being used most effectively and enable an enormous volume of water to be concentrated on any building. Connections were also made with the standpipes within the building and water was discharged from the roof. The interior connections must be used in fighting fires in a tall building.)

If any additional proof of the effectiveness of the New York high-pressure service were needed, it is supplied by the fact that recently there has been appropriated $1,800,000 for its extension to the East River, between Houston and Chambers streets, a district where the density of population and the character of the buildings,—largely combustible tenements and factories,—doubtless would make of any serious fire a grave catastrophe. It is proposed eventually to extend the high-pressure service up to Fourteenth Street on the East Side, and down as far as the Battery to protect the buildings on and near the waterfront.

PRACTICAL RESULTS.

For practical results of the new high-pressure fire protection it is only necessary to examine the record of Philadelphia since the installation of the system in 1904. The first important consequence was the reduction of insurance rates 25 cents per $100 insured within the protected territory, thus offsetting an advance of the same amount made in 1900. There have been

no very large fires, and whenever the system has been called into operation, as for example on March 24, 1907, when on a run of four hours and twenty-six minutes there were pumped 1,360,000 gallons, it has made always a satisfactory response. Indeed so successful has it proved that during the present year bonds to the amount of $500,000 have been issued to extend the system in the northeast part of the city.

EXTENSION OF HIGH-PRESSURE SYSTEMS.

In nearly all the large cities of the United States the underwriters are urging the adoption or extension of high-pressure systems, and where there are mains fed by fire-boats, not only their extension but the erection of permanent pumping plants is demanded. In practically every case satisfactory service up to the capacity of the plant has been obtained, and in addition to the cities already mentioned brief reference might be made to the cities of Newark, N. J., and Providence, R. I., both of which maintain special high-pressure fire systems fed by gravity from reservoirs located on high ground. The Providence system has mains aggregating about 30,000 feet in length, on which there is a pressure of 116 pounds, while in Newark the fire service in operation since 1905 has a line of pipe 15,000 feet in length for fire purposes exclusively, on which a pressure of 165 pounds is maintained. This last-named installation has brought about a reduction of insurance rates of 10 per cent. in the district protected. At Rochester, N. Y., steam pumps can put on a system of independent mains used for fire and manufacturing purposes pressures from sixty to ninety pounds.

High-pressure fire services of greater or less extent are either under construction or have been proposed for the following American and Canadian cities: Washington, Hartford, Atlantic City, Winnipeg, Toronto, Chicago, and Baltimore. These systems vary from gravity supply to elaborate pumping plants. In other cities, such as Fitchburg, Lawrence, and Lowell, Mass., separate pipe systems have been extended from the high-service into low-pressure areas to afford increased protection. On the Pacific Coast also the subject is receiving much attention on account of the large number of frame buildings to be found in the large cities, and as many of these are surrounded by high hills the construction of high-pressure reservoirs or standpipes to afford gravity pressure is not attended by undue difficulty.

SAN FRANCISCO'S NEW SYSTEM.

Naturally the interest is greatest at San Francisco, where as a result of the earthquake and fire considerable repair and extension of the waterworks were required. For fire purposes it has been decided to install an independent system, with mains aggregating ninety-one and a half miles in length, fed from two storage reservoirs, each of 5,000,000 gallons capacity, to be constructed at an altitude of 755 feet, so that by gravity they will be able to supply a high pressure on the city's fire mains, which ordinarily will be fed at a less but sufficient pressure from distributing reservoirs in two zones at elevations of 490 and 329 feet respectively. The storage reservoirs are to be supplied with fresh water drawn from wells within the city, pumped by electric pumps at two stations, each having a capacity of 1050 gallons per minute. Near each distributing reservoir will be located a fire-house whose officials can operate the valves of the distributing system as may be needed, and from 8000 to 12,000 gallons of water per minute can be concentrated on any single block or 15,000 gallons on an area of 100,000 square feet.

The San Francisco project, for whose execution bonds to the amount of $5,200,000 have been issued, involves the greatest possible fire protection to the city proper, with the practical relegation of all the fire engines to the outlying districts. In addition to the fresh-water system just mentioned, the plans provide for two salt-water emergency plants built near the water front on solid rock so as to be earthquake-proof and connected with the high-pressure service through mains laid in the solid ground. Each of these two stations, which are to be equipped with powerful oil-burning centrifugal steam pumps, will have an ultimate capacity of 16,000 gallons per minute against a pressure of 300 pounds, and the failure of one station will impair neither the system as a whole nor the operation of the other station, while, as in other cities, two powerful fire-boats in addition to their regular duties on the water front will be held in reserve for connection with the high-pressure mains.

VALUE OF THE HIGH-PRESSURE SYSTEMS.

Thus it will be seen that the value of high-pressure systems of independent fire mains seems to be generally appreciated, and their adoption on a larger or smaller scale is so widespread as to indicate that their installa-

tion is considered a good investment on the part of the cities concerned. It must be borne in mind that the prevention of fire is even more essential than the successful dealing with a large conflagration, though it is a tendency of the American public to rate a fire department on the score of its ability to conquer a large conflagration by heroic efforts rather than to consider the efficiency of men and appliances in being able to keep down to modest dimensions a fire once started. The fire-protection efficiency of a city should be judged by the small amount of the annual losses, which of course implies superior construction of its buildings and superior ability and equipment of the fire department. It is the opinion of underwriters and expert engineers that the high-pressure service not only should be extended in cities where it has been adopted, but that it should be installed in all cities where there are congested and hazardous risks. Combustible buildings and improper conditions generally have obtained for so long in American cities that a most extraordinary problem is presented in their protection against fire.

During a transitional period, as it were, when new construction is mainly fireproof or fire-resisting, fire protection for our cities is an important and expensive consideration. However, it is the price that must be paid for errors of the past, and the American people cannot compare conditions in their own cities with those of Europe, where for centuries building has taken place with due regard to the danger of fire, so that for American cities, with their tall buildings most unfavorably located in congested districts, the main fire protection in the future must consist in an adequate water supply at a higher pressure than the average domestic supply administered by fire departments no way inferior to those of the present day as regards organization and personnel, but even better equipped for meeting extraordinary emergencies. For such conditions the independent high-pressure fire service is to-day the most useful means that the fireman has at his disposal, and engineers and underwriters believe with all confidence that it will so prove in any serious test with an actual fire.



HIGH-PRESSURE NOZZLE CART USED BY THE SAN FRANCISCO FIRE DEPARTMENT.

(This nozzle can be operated by one man, and to it several lines of hose can be connected for the discharge of large quantities of water.)



THE AUDITORIUM AT OMAHA.
(This building is being converted into the main Exposition Building for the National Corn Show.)

A NATIONAL CORN EXPOSITION.

BY WILL A. CAMPBELL.

NOW that the season's crops have been harvested, and a new American President elected, while the country, fully recovered from the financial unpleasantness of the winter of 1907-'08, faces a prosperous holiday season and promising New Year, a National Corn Exposition will open at Omaha, where ten years ago the Transmississippi and International Exposition was a jubilee of victory at the end of the Spanish-American War.

While sentiment might have been in a measure responsible for the world's fairs and great expositions held in Chicago, Buffalo, St. Louis, Portland, and Jamestown, there is no sentiment in the organization of the National Corn Exposition, the newest of Western enterprises. It will commemorate no victory, discovery, nor great event in history, but it doubtless is the formal opening of a new era in the commercial history of America.

The National Corn Exposition is really the first great national agricultural show ever held in a country more dependent on agriculture than on anything else. It is a business enterprise,—a necessity to enable the people of the great Mississippi and Missouri River valleys to show to the world the wealth in corn and its products; in the fields of wheat and barley; in the "Great Plains" long ago weary of growing sagebrush, which have now become waving seas of alfalfa, and in the heavy-laden orchards and vineyards.

Four great movements have influenced the governors of Western States, county and State agricultural societies, railroads, and business men of Omaha, now one of the largest primary grain markets of the world, in launching the National Corn Exposition. They came in this order:

1. The "short course" in dairying and stock-judging started at the agricultural colleges of Wisconsin and Iowa in 1899 and now developed for other lines and adopted by almost every State in the West.

2. The local agricultural experiment stations on the county poor-farms begun by Iowa in 1903 and since adopted by Illinois, Minnesota, Nebraska, and other States.

3. The "seed-corn special" trains started in 1904 by Prof. P. G. Holden, of the Iowa Agricultural College, which, during the seasons of 1904, 1905, and 1906, traveled 11,000 miles, made 789 stops, and enabled more than 150,000 people to hear 1265 lectures which pointed out to the farmers that the seed they were planting each year should be



MR. GURDON W. WATTLES.

(President of the National Corn Exposition and former president of the Trans-Mississippi and International Exposition.)

tested, that they were wasting one-third of their time and one-third of their land by planting seed that did not grow, leaving vacant places that cost just as much to cultivate as if they were filled with good stalks, each bearing twelve to fifteen ounce ears of corn.

4. The "short courses" held in many Illinois, Iowa, Nebraska, and Oklahoma towns, each attended by from 200 to 1000 farmers who brought in corn to study and exhibit for prizes, and organized county and then State corn shows in connection with their short courses and institutes.

About the time agricultural interests were aroused to the possibility of producing more corn by practical testing and planting of the seed, it became more apparent that the grain produced on the great farms of the United States must be improved in quality and more care given to the distribution of varieties. Grain buyers in the markets of the world, the Department of Agriculture, experts in agricultural colleges and transportation companies, have recognized that American grain has been actually deteriorating in quality.

Such complaints have been coming from Europe, from official and semi-official sources. Out of the rejection of shiploads of corn from the United States, the shipping of poorer grades than ever before, and the "gambling in inspection certificates," or careless inspection, grew the demand for federal inspection which has so agitated some Senators and Representatives in Congress, and alarmed the grain interests to active opposition to the measure. But the truth remains that Europe has been taking less of the surplus grain of the United States, and South American competitors are securing a constantly increasing share of the European grain trade.

As this fact became apparent to those interested in agriculture, and the farm lands increased in value year by year, it became a question whether the farms of Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, Nebraska, and Kansas could be made to continue the payment of dividends on such enormous valuations. Then the grain dealers, implement manufacturers, railroads, and business men in the corn belt began seeking a method of imparting to the



MR. HENRY WALLACE, OF DES MOINES.

(Member of President Roosevelt's Commission on Rural Life, who has arranged for a series of conferences of the commission at the National Corn Exposition.)



PROFESSOR R. A. MOORE.
(Of the Wisconsin Experiment Station. Mr. Moore has developed a corn which matures and gives big yields in cold soils and during the short seasons of northern Wisconsin.)

MR. E. D. FUNK.
(President of the National Corn Association. The Funk farms in Illinois comprise 27,000 acres in the heart of the corn belt.)

PROFESSOR P. G. HOLDEN.
(Originator of the "seed-corn special" trains, and leader in the short-course work, who believes in the National Corn Exposition as a valuable adjunct to scientific work.)

largest number interested in agriculture, the knowledge which years of study has given the army of experts in the agricultural colleges and the Department of Agriculture, and the benefit of the experience gained by thousands of farmers who are already careful plant breeders and scientific grain growers.

A great national agricultural show was outlined by the National Corn Association, which has in its ranks leading farmers of fifteen States and of which E. D. Funk, of Bloomington, Ill., is the president. These men believed that such an exposition would do for agriculture what the world's fairs have done for commerce and for the mechanical and fine arts; what the national and international stock shows have done for the stock growers and breeders. They believed that the competition in such an exposition would inspire neighborhoods, townships, counties, and States to produce more and better grain; they believed that the bringing together of the corn and wheat, oats, barley, and grasses from all the States in the agricultural region of the United States would show by comparison many things about distribution of varieties and values that would be invaluable to agricultural interests and to the country.

Members of President Roosevelt's commission to investigate country life in the United States and make recommendations as to the legislative needs of the agricultural classes have co-operated with the managers to make the exposition at Omaha an inspiration to the farmers, and the first important meeting of the commission has been called to convene in Omaha during the exposition, when a series of conferences will be held with the leading agricultural thinkers and business men whose interests are most intimately connected with agriculture.

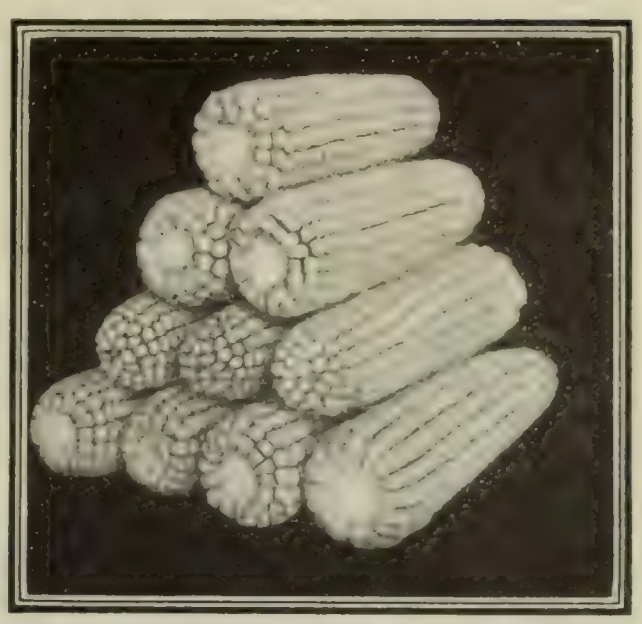
The conferences will take to Omaha Dr. Liberty Hyde Bailey, of Cornell University; Gifford Pinchot, head of the federal Forest Service; Henry Wallace, of Des Moines, dean of the agricultural press; Walter H. Page, magazine editor, and Kenyon L. Butterfield, president of the Massachusetts College of Agriculture, who compose the commission appointed by the President.

The commission will first meet, in three morning sessions, farmers and business men, ministers and physicians, bankers, editors, and grain buyers from country towns and communities, who will be given an opportunity to express their ideas as to the needs of rural America. The commission will then meet with the leading cereal-food manufacturers of the United States, and the grain buyers and exporters from the primary

markets. A session will be devoted to a discussion with the editors of the agricultural press, and another with railroad presidents, traffic and operating officials, a number of the presidents having expressed their desire and willingness to meet with the commission in Omaha.

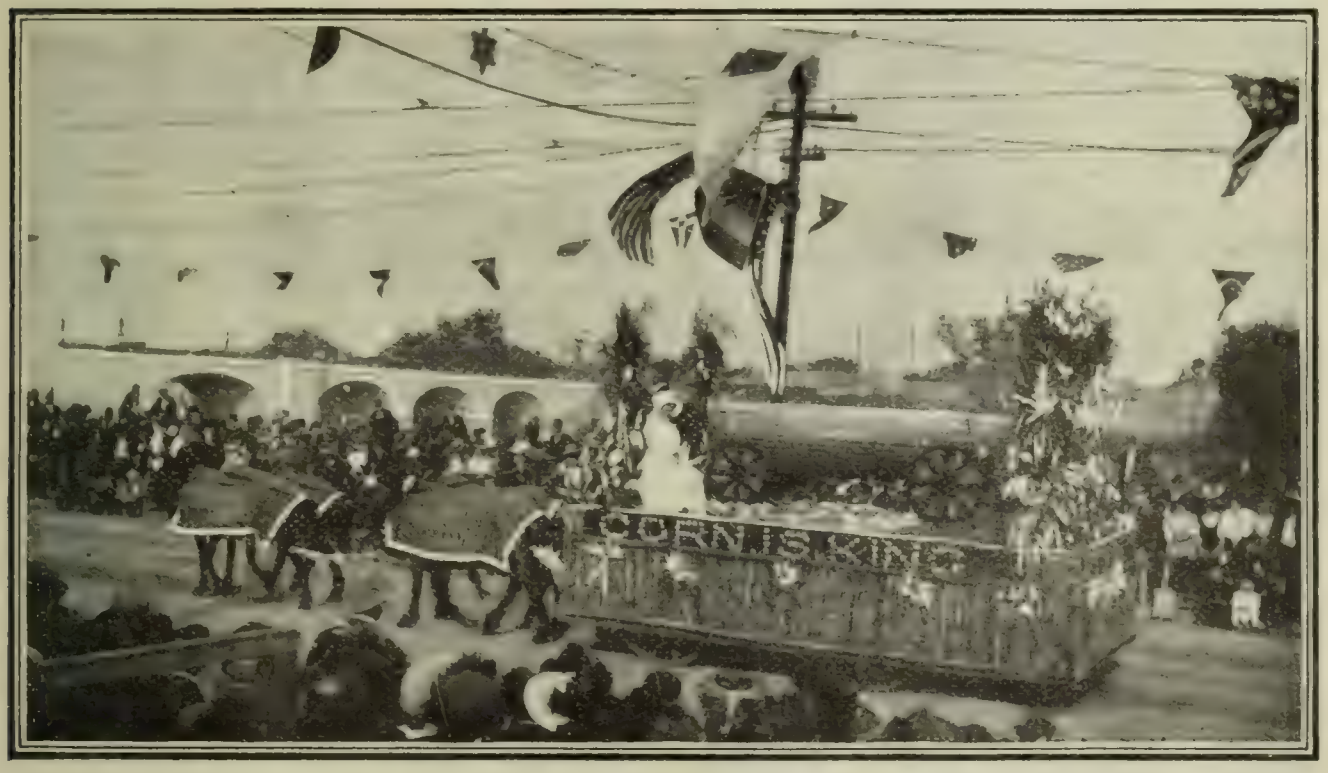
Governors from many of the States interested will open the exposition on Wednesday, December 9, which day will be known as "Governors' Day." Implement manufacturers and dealers will have three special days, as the State conventions of three associations will meet in Omaha on December 15, 16, and 17. One of the special days which will attract many to the corn show will be "Agricultural College Day," December 11, when special trains will carry hundreds of students from the schools and experiment stations of Iowa, Nebraska, Minnesota, South Dakota, Kansas, and Missouri to Omaha.

Numbered among the speakers who will deliver addresses during the exposition are Dr. W. M. Hays, Assistant Secretary of Agriculture; H. M. Collingwood, of New York City, editor of the *Rural New Yorker;* William J. Bryan; E. S. Conway, Association of Commerce, Chicago; Lic Luis Gorozpe, Chaverillo, Mexico; T. R. Garton, Warrington, England; Samuel H. Smith, Chicago Board of Trade; besides the governors of States, including Cummins, of



SAMPLE OF "SILVER KING" CORN.

(This type has been developed by the experiment stations of the Badger State and is generally grown by the dairymen, who owe the success of their business largely to the fact that a type of corn has been produced which will grow in the cold soils of the North, not only giving them a grain for feeding with their clovers, but a surplus corn crop. On the Stanton farm in northern Wisconsin ninety-eight bushels per acre of this "Silver King" were produced in 1907.)



CONNECTICUT CORN AT THE NATIONAL CORN EXPOSITION.

(N. Howard Brewer, of Hartford, is in charge of the Connecticut exhibit, and the prize corn from many carnivals will be exhibited at Omaha. The float shown in the picture was designed by Mr. Brewer and was photographed at Hartford Bridge.)



A PRIZE WINNER AND HIS NEIGHBOR.

(It costs the practical farmer just 6 cents per acre more to test seed and plant his corn than it did his neighbor, who planted his in primitive fashion. One field produced seventy-seven bushels per acre and the other thirty-five bushels. Only a barbed-wire fence separated the fields.)

Iowa; Hoch, of Kansas; Johnson, of Minnesota; Brooks, of Wyoming; Sheldon, of Nebraska, and Crawford, of South Dakota.

Buildings of the exposition consist of the main Exposition Building, Industrial Hall, Alfalfa Palace, the Iowa and Nebraska Building, an auditorium where a number of bands will give concerts, and speakers will deliver addresses; a woman's building, containing the exhibits made by women, as well as the domestic science department and model kitchens.

States which will be represented in the Exposition Building number twenty-eight, some of them making elaborate exhibits, for which funds have been secured by various means, some appropriated by State boards of agriculture and a large number made by contributions of commercial bodies. The States having exhibits are: Alabama, Arkansas, Colorado, Connecticut, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, North Carolina, New York, North Dakota, New Mexico, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Washington, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

As the products of these States are so vast and varied, the premium list has taken them all into consideration, and provision has been made for each State in some way, and while some of them exhibit largely the products to which their soil and climate are adapted, the predominating exhibits are of grains and grasses. Thirty days before the dates set for the exposition to open, 4000 individual entries had been made, which included 100,000 ears of corn, which is expected to get into the prize-winning class and has been placed in cases, where the "thoroughbred" corn may be examined. This corn is no mere decoration. It is all carefully marked and placed on shelves which wind around a balcony in the main exposition building,—three and one-half miles of prize-winning corn.

Some of this corn will win big premiums, —premiums larger than those paid at the big live-stock shows on thoroughbred animals. Ten ears of corn will win $2500,—just $250 per ear in the corn sweepstakes.



HILL OF WELL-BRED CORN.

(These three stalks, strong and vigorous, resulted from planting three kernels of well-bred corn in one hill.)

It will be a poor ten-ear sample which does not win $10 or an award medal, as more than $50,000 is offered in premiums. The Indiana corn-growers offer a silver commonwealth trophy worth $1000, which was secured by contributions of $10 from the corn-growers in each county of the State.

When the exposition is over and the premiums awarded there will be a gigantic auction sale of prize-winning corn. Some of the corn will doubtless sell, judging from past experiences, at from $1 to $50 per ear, and the sweepstakes winners will bring the exhibitors something like $500 for samples, besides the premiums.

But while corn remains king and alfalfa is now acknowledged to be queen at the National Corn Exposition, wheat and other grains and grasses will not be wanting in the exhibits. Grain dealers and authorities from agricultural colleges have inaugurated a new test for the wheat, and in order to win prizes it will not simply be declared "good wheat" by the judges, but it will have to make good bread. The proof of the pudding will be truly in the eating,—as the wheat will be milled and the domestic science department will bake bread from the flour. But if the bread is good, the prizes will be worth while, —$500, for instance, for half a bushel of wheat.

Mexico, England, Canada, Hawaii, and Argentina are the foreign countries which have arranged to make exhibits, though grains have been brought from many other countries by seedmen and manufacturers.

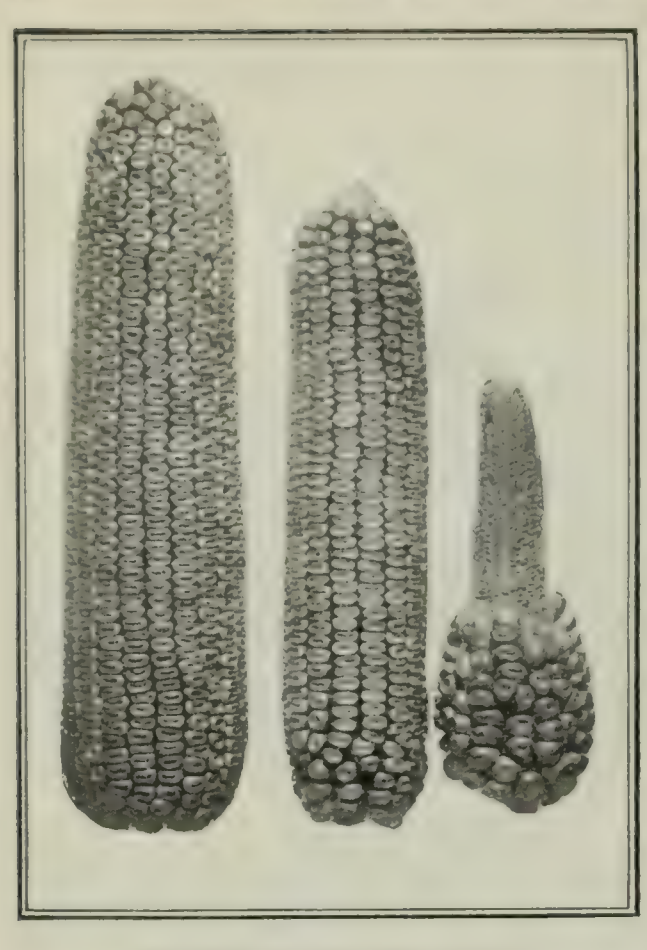
Zeferino Dominguez, a Mexican planter who is taking the lead in introducing the scientific farming methods of the United States in Mexico, arranged the Mexican exhibit, assisted by Mayor Porfirio Diaz, Jr., son of the Mexican President, and the two commissioners appointed by the Vera Cruz State Department of Agriculture. The Mexican agriculturists have also arranged for the government to offer a solid silver trophy, costing $1500, to the students' judging team winning the highest number of points in corn-judging. The trophy is a rare specimen of the Mexican silversmith's art, and a bust of President Diaz has been worked into the design.

In explanation as to why the trophy was offered by Mexico for this accomplishment, Mayor Diaz said Mexico would soon press into service the graduates of the agricultural



ZEFERINO DOMINGUEZ.

(One of the leading agriculturists of Mexico, who has arranged the exhibit of the Mexican Government at the National Corn Exposition and provided a $1500 silver trophy for the student-judging-team winning highest number of points in corn judging open to the world.)



CHILDREN OF THE CORN PLANT.

(The perfect ear on the left shows what a healthy and well-developed stalk of corn is capable of producing when not pollenized by a stalk which produces the nubbin on the right. The ear in the center shows the result of degenerate corn pollenizing well-developed corn in the field.)

colleges of the United States as experts to handle the old lands of that country and he thought an incentive should be given to the young people in the colleges to become competent judges of corn.

From the largest plant-breeding stations of England, T. R. Garton, an expert, brings to the United States an exhibit showing the accomplishments of twenty-seven years of careful work and hard study. Among the new grains which England will show, are the hulless oats, which American millers hope will be adaptable to the climate and soils of the United States, as such an oat will result in a large saving in the cost of milling.

Industrial Hall is the largest of the buildings, and contains 55,000 square feet of the total of 225,000 square feet of floor space in the exposition buildings. In this hall the products of corn and grains will be displayed as well as one of the largest exhibits of farm implements and farm machinery ever made in the United States. The exhibits consist of everything from seed-testing boxes and incubators to complete threshing outfits and electrical appliances for the farm, from lighting plants to electrical feed-grinders. The machinery used by manufacturers in preparing corn-food products has also been installed in this building.

The railroads have stimulated the taking of exhibits to the National Corn Exposition by furnishing baggage cars which have been hauled on passenger trains without charge, thus moving exhibits free of cost either to the exposition management or the exhibitors. These cars have been sent to the county seats of several States, the exhibits collected, and an attendant placed in charge to see that the prize grains arrive in good condition.

Judging at the exposition will be in charge of A. D. Shamel, chief of the Bureau of Plant Breeding, Department of Agriculture, and each State will have a judge under this superintendent.

Most of the corn and other grains which will be exhibited at the National Corn Exposition will be from the county and State shows and fairs. The exhibits will be the prize assortments from these shows, and will be the highest types of grain and grass produced in the vast and varied sections of America. Not only will the grain come from all latitudes, but among the exhibits will be corn grown in the Missouri River Valley, which has an altitude of 1000 feet above the sea level, and by the side of it will be placed the corn from the Rocky Mountain fields, 6000 and even 8000 feet above the sea. From Mississippi will come alfalfa grown on lands which seem virtual Bonanzas, where the soil has been sublimated under sun and stars to something finer, and produces five perfect crops each year; from Kentucky will be seen corn which has been kept up near perfection during all the years since the slaves first "hilled" it with a hoe and won the State fame before its blue grass was appreciated. Idaho will send oats, which during the past season have been the wonder of every miller, weighing as they did from forty-two to fifty pounds to the bushel,—a dish of oatmeal to every grain.

To these will be added exhibits from every foreign country where American seed corn is planted, which the seed men of the United States are collecting for the national show, where they expect to point out the relative value of grains and the adaptability of certain varieties for certain purposes and soils.

THE NATIONAL MOVEMENT FOR AMERICAN MUSIC.

BY ARTHUR FARWELL.

(First president of the American Music Society.)

THE establishment on a national basis last spring of the American Music Society was only the culmination of seven years' hard work in the Wa-Wan movement to discover, co-ordinate, and formulate the national bases for an American music. This Wa-Wan movement was really an endeavor to be "human though musical."

From European study and observation I returned in 1899, with the firm conviction that if America was to achieve distinction in musical composition it would be only in so far as it could produce something out of and peculiar to itself. The works that make musical Germany and France to-day are not the works which those countries produced while seeking to imitate Italy; nor did Russia begin to produce music that rang true until she spoke from the Russian soul instead of trying to speak from the German. If America could not speak for herself, why speak at all?

Moreover, undoubtedly in imitating most of modern Europe we imitate a decadence,—that is, we school ourselves to weakness, at a time of all times when we should be developing a primitive strength, even though it must be crude in its expression.

For the encouraging fact that America is musically sane and healthy at heart, no better evidence could be found than the taking of Beethoven and Wagner as models by our first eminent composers. But the musical saturnalia of post-Wagnerian Europe has undoubtedly tended to mislead us, and, at a time when we should have been thinking of tunes, we were in danger of becoming over-interested in more or less reprehensible musical "modes of consciousness," both amorphous and neurotic. No less an authority upon the history of music than Prof. C. Hubert Parry makes a statement to the effect that "whenever the musical art of a country becomes weakened through overrefinement, it draws new strength and vitality from the simple songs of the folk." America's musical danger has not lain in developing, but in copying an overrefinement at the outset, in building a foundation on decay. And the greatest danger of all was that this decay was becoming fashionable, without (creditably to its supporters) its real nature being recognized.

"MUSICALLY AN EXPRESSION OF AMERICA."

It was in the fall of 1899 that I picked up a copy of Miss Alice C. Fletcher's "Indian Story and Song from North America." This book contains a number of harmonized native Indian melodies, mostly Omaha, together with the impressive and delightful myths and legends pertaining to them. At first these melodies seemed incoherent and formless. At this time it had not occurred to me to make any such analysis as is hinted at above, of national or of modern conditions, but being called upon to prepare a course of university lectures on the history of music, these matters came up eventually for consideration. Coupling Professor Parry's remark with the musical state of modern Europe, I saw that here was an opportunity to start out afresh, unhampered by tradition and overrefinement, and do something which should be musically an expression of the United States of America.

Going back to the book of Indian melodies, wholly without any theory as to their relation to American music, but simply in the hope of receiving a fresh and strong rhythmic stimulus, I found that when I divested the melodies of the harmony that accompanied them, which seemed to me too conventional, and sang them to myself in the light of their mythical meaning, they took on a wholly new character. Far from being meaningless, they appeared to me now as unusually expressive and forceful melodies or motives, impellingly suggestive of development into larger forms.

I first experimented with the harmonization of these simple melodies and found that when freely harmonized in the spirit of their accompanying legends or myths they became doubly expressive; the harmony, while necessitating an ethnological sacrifice, making at the same time for a compensating artistic

gain. Here was a great find, a new, forceful, varied, highly poetic musical idiom, capable of infinite development, and belonging exclusively to America. America's proprietorship, however, did not at the moment excite me so much as my own, for I was born and reared in the West, and of all I had earlier seen with the ignorant and wondering eyes of a boy,—Sitting Bull himself, with his warriors, in captivity; Indian villages with their picturesque tepees; sun dances and the impassioned addresses of the priest to the sun god,—of these and much more the meaning now came back to me with redoubled force. These things were my own, part of my own life, and here was the means at hand of intimately voicing the rich world of romance in my own art of tone!

Nothing would have surprised me more at this time than to dream, even, that a critical and theoretical struggle would arise over what seemed to me a very simple, natural, beautiful, and incontrovertible phenomenon, the assimilation of "American" folksongs. To learn whether others would feel the thrill which I had felt in these melodies, in the winter of 1900 I invited an Ithaca audidence (I was then stationed at Cornell University) up to the lecture hall to hear them. Having thus tried them, and being satisfied with the Ithacans' response, which was sincere and spontaneous, and having tried them with equal success upon so cosmopolitan an audience as Mme. Modjeska, who was playing in the town, I felt that there was reason to pursue this development. Let it be understood that neither then nor since have I ever held Indian songs to be the basis of American music, but merely one element. Moreover, only a fraction of my work in composition, considerably less than half, has been based upon Indian and other American folk songs.

THE INDIAN MOTIVES IN THE HANDS OF WHITE COMPOSERS.

In the spring of 1901 I was in Boston and New York, assisting in the production of a song-book for schools, made up in the main of choruses by American composers, known and unknown. Meeting in this way all the composers within range of these cities, I took the opportunity of examining their best work in manuscript, without reference to the song-book, in order to discover any evidences of new musical styles springing up in America, and also to learn how far American composers had got in the wielding of modern musical material. The one cry I heard everywhere from them (remember, this was seven years ago) was "the publishers do not want our best work, they want only what will have a quick sale." In fact, it was the occasion of a startling surprise to mark the discrepancy between the work by which our younger American-trained composers were represented in print, and the work upon their shelves by which they wished to be represented. Here was their most progressive work, full of interest, daring, and independence, a sincere expression of these composers at their best, their worthiest contribution to American music, and nobody wanting it! This appeared to me an intolerable condition.

Personally, I had an idea that the country did want just this particular music, but that it could not say so because it did not know of its existence. The solution of this problem was simple,—print the music. Accordingly, in the fall of 1901, the publication of music was begun from my home in Newton Center, Massachusetts, and the Wa-Wan Press (named after the Wa-Wan ceremony or "Pipe Dance" of the Omaha Indians) was launched, with Walt Whitman's "I hear America singing" for its motto. Having no money to begin with, I issued a small circular, offering a quarterly series of new American compositions by subscription, and thus got a small capital. Works by several American composers were put out, including some of my own developments of Indian melodies. The ideal for the series was that it should contain the best and most representative works of American composers, without regard to a profitable popularity, and that it should make a feature of works based upon American folk songs. The books of the series were also to be put up in a more artistic and durable form than is usual with music. At the beginning of the second year the nature of the demand made it necessary to issue the compositions also in sheet music form, separately.

APPEAL OF INDIAN MELODIES.

The presence of Mr. Henry F. Gilbert (composer of the Pirate Song: "Fifteen Men on a Dead Man's Chest") at Newton Center made it possible for me to make a thorough tour of the West and learn all about musical conditions and tendencies throughout the country, to meet composers, and to put the Indian compositions to a broad test. In 1903 I made a trip to California and the Northwest, playing a recital of the Indian

melodies and compositions based on them in many cities, and speaking for progressive musical conditions. One of the results of this trip was that with the exception of Gilbert's "Pirate Song," which Mr. Bispham has sung so broadly, the Indian music has had to be reprinted more frequently than any other music issued by the Wa-Wan Press.

In 1904 I made a second trip to the Far West, this time for the American Institute of Archeology, to assist Mr. Charles F. Lummis in phonographically recording and in transcribing the Indian and Spanish-American songs of Arizona, New Mexico, and California. This most interesting work, carried on amid such picturesque and romantic surroundings, brought forth a collection of over six hundred songs of the Spanish-Californians, many of them of rare beauty and the work upon which is so great that they are still not ready for publication. These labors also brought out the great distinction which exists between the songs of the "plains" Indians of the Middle West and the "desert" Indians of the Southwest, the former being in general more severe in melodic outline, while the latter incline to be more florid.

It was on this trip that I had the rare experience of being present at the midsummer "High Jinks" of the Bohemian Club of San Francisco, held annually at the full moon in August, in the great redwood grove up on the Russian River. An original music-drama of Wagnerian proportions, written and composed newly each year and having but one, and that a festival performance, with full orchestra, up in the great woods,—is not this the greatest event of a musical-dramatic nature to which American life has yet given rise?

WORK OF THE WA-WAN PRESS.

Returning early in 1905, and giving a talk upon these Western experiences at the Twentieth Century Club of Boston, it was asked if there were opportunities in Boston to hear works by the various Western composers whom I had mentioned, and works based upon Indian and other American folk songs. As there were not, it was proposed to form an American Music Society, to represent broadly the American composer, and this was done April 20, 1905. This society has quietly persisted up to the present time of its larger establishment, and has given in Boston many works which would not otherwise have come to a hearing.

During these years works by a very considerable number of composers, many of whose names were previously little known or wholly unknown, were being issued by the Wa-Wan Press. Edgar Stillman-Kelley, Henry Gilbert, Harvey Worthington Loomis, John Beach, Natalie Curtis, Edward Burlingame Hill, Benjamin Lambord, Stanley R. Avery, Henry Waller, Lawrence Gilman, and others, in the East; Arne Oldberg, Ernest R. Kroeger, Campbell-Tipton, William Schuyler, Chester Ide, Noble Kreider, Gena Branscomb, Eleanor Everest Freer, Fanny Snow Knowlton, in the Middle West; Frederic Ayres, Arthur Shepherd, Caroline Holme Walker, and Rubin Goldmark, in the Rocky Mountain region; William McCoy and Edward Schneider on the Pacific Coast; all these, and others, have been represented in the Wa-Wan movement. Of the works issued the majority have had no relation to native folksongs. About one-third of them, however, are based either upon Indian, negro, cowboy, or Spanish-Californian folk melodies, and it is in these that by far the liveliest interest has been shown, and about which the greatest number of absurd and erroneous things have been said.

The discussion concerning the so-called "American" folksongs was now (in 1905 and 1906) at its height. Some time before Dvorak had advanced the idea, one of our foremost composers, George W. Chadwick, had suggested it, and even in some degree hinted at it in his works. But it took ten or a dozen years for the idea to ripen, and not until composers began to realize this treasure trove and to appropriate it, was this tendency in American music formally challenged and discussed. Works thus based upon native melodies gave the jingoistically inclined, who could not perceive independent American spirit at work in other musical tendencies not involving folksongs, a handle wherewith to take hold of American music. These at once proclaimed such works the only true American music.

Academicians, concerned for the dignity and the purity of the art, and who could not for their lives produce anything so dignified and pure as most Indian songs, as well as those critics so in the habit of upholding only European standards that they could not break themselves of it, lent no countenance whatsoever to these new heresies. Both these points of view, from the standpoint of the Wa-Wan movement, are something less than human, and therefore equally untenable. If

a composer finds fresh inspiration in these hitherto unheeded melodies, let him use them. What is more right or natural, or human? If he produces works of art and of beauty from them, revealing a new spirit, and the people wish these works, to hear and retain them, what argument is to prevent it? Nor even in the end does the use of such folk songs imply a theory about them. The Wa-Wan movement does not insist upon the use of native folk songs in American music; what it does insist upon, and that vigorously, is the composer's perfect moral and artistic right to use native folk songs, or any folk songs, if he wishes.

SCOPE OF THE AMERICAN MUSIC SOCIETY.

Of another circumstance, directly affecting the destinies of the Wa-Wan movement, I have become convinced,—namely, that serious American compositions, sent out to the country and left to their fate, could not in a lifetime, under present conditions, get in any sense a national hearing.

Artists, with rare exceptions, will not learn and perform American works, however high may be their opinion of them, in a society which still, broadly considered, really sanctions only that which is European. Here was another intolerable condition. A changed social attitude was necessary. There must be widespread and organized performance of American works, until the country has at last found that it is the gainer and not the loser by an entirely liberal hospitality to American works.

The establishment of an organization to accomplish this end now became the matter of chief importance. At the beginning of 1907 the organization of the Wa-Wan Society was undertaken. A start was made in Detroit, and by the early months of 1908 there were ten "centers" of the society, most of them already actively engaged in giving programs of music by American composers, in the following cities: Detroit, St. Louis, Colorado Springs, Salt Lake City, Rochester, Buffalo, Geneva, N. Y., Springfield, Ill., St. Joseph, and San Diego.

The early months of 1908 were devoted to the forming of a Center in New York City. To this end, a concert of American compositions not previously heard in New York, was given at the Institute of Musical Art, at which a number of artists, students of the Institute, and singers from the Metropolitan Opera House assisted. As the work of organization progressed, it was thought desirable to change the name of the society, taking one that was not Indian and which could not lead to any misconception of the society's broad aims. A coalition with the American Music Society of Boston was effected, and a vote taken by all the centers to change the name of the entire society to the American Music Society, which thus acquired two new and important centers, New York and Boston. All the separate centers are tributary to the national organization, the Board of Management of this being made up in part from officers of the centers, and in part from persons prominently connected with musical matters in America. The national organization issues an organ, the *American Music Society Bulletin*, for all members.

Among the officers of the New York Center are David Bispham, who is president; Frank Damrosch, Rudolph Schirmer, Spencer Trask, F. X. Arens, and others prominent in New York musical life. Included in the council of the Boston Center are George W. Chadwick, Arthur Foote, Walter R. Spalding, John P. Marshall, Miss Helen A. Clarke, and myself. Walter Damrosch will serve the national organization in the capacity of musical director. Thomas Tryon, 41 Union Square, New York, secretary for both the national organization and the New York Center, will be glad to send further information concerning the society to all who wish to swell the ranks of this needed movement to gain a national hearing for music by American composers.

A plan is now being devised whereby existing societies and musical organizations, in places where the organization of a new center of the American Music Society is not practicable, may become auxiliary centers. Thus the cultivation of the impulse toward a more and more significant creative musical art in America, as well as the knowledge of the works of American composers, may be extended to all parts of the country which are awake to the present conditions and needs.

LOANS ON SALARIES AND WAGES.

BY SAMUEL McCUNE LINDSAY.

(Director of the New York School of Philanthropy and Professor of Social Legislation in Columbia University.)

PROGRESSIVE philanthropy aims to do away with exploitation. Righteous indignation is aroused when we see a man victimized by circumstances over which he has little or no control and find that some one profits by his misfortune. As the Christmas season approaches we are more disposed than usual to help neighbors in distress. Is it not worth while to strike at the roots of the trouble as well as to help the individual sufferer? That is what the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York, through its School of Philanthropy, is trying to do in one of the important departments of the school,—the Bureau of Social Research, —which has undertaken investigations for the Russell Sage Foundation of definite social problems that promise practical results in the improvement of social conditions. One of these studies, the results of which have just been published, deals with the salary-loan business in New York City.

A man supporting a family on a small salary in New York City is often able just to make ends meet by strict economy, but finds it impossible to lay by anything for an emergency or for the future. There are thousands of such families. When serious illness comes to the mother or children there are no resources which will serve as collateral at the bank, although a loan is imperative. Charity is not appealed to and not wanted. Where there are no friends to help, the attractive advertisements in the newspapers which read: "Salaried people advanced money upon their own names without security on easy payments; strictly confidential"; "Try us for money, any amount advanced and ample time given for repayment; quick and confidential; no red tape," have a wonderful attraction. Few persons know that to answer such advertisements means in most cases jumping from the frying pan into the fire. It spells not only financial disaster, from which recovery is well nigh impossible for a self-respecting poor man, but also moral shipwreck and sometimes the destruction of the family. The profits of one concern alone apparently justified the spending of $5000 in a single year in such advertising, and it is estimated that 30,000 persons in New York City are making payments every pay day to such money-lenders.

The methods pursued to obtain and hold this highly profitable business usually include the most artful devices on the part of the money-lender who takes advantage of the need, ignorance, shiftlessness, and immoral practices of the borrower, and develops all of these factors if they do not exist at the outset. Many employers do not wish to be troubled by assignments of the wages of their employees, or by the inquiries from agents of the money-lenders, and consequently forbid their employees to patronize them on penalty of discharge. The transaction then must be made secretly if at all, and the loan offices are the more eager to make such loans because this gives them an effective club to enforce their conditions by threatening constant exposure, though promising secrecy. Women agents are generally used to secure another kind of hold over customers.

The customers, however, are not all innocent borrowers. Much of the borrowing is unquestionably by men whose aim is temporarily to supplement their income for the purpose of gambling or licentious living or to meet ill-advised expenses, which would not be incurred if money could not be obtained in this way. Though the salary-loan business is one of great risks, every city in the country is infested with the so-called loan sharks. Innocent borrowers must suffer equally with those for whom little social sympathy need be felt. The extent and character of the business, those engaged in it, and the proportion of real and fictitious need to which it ministers in our complex city life are some of the questions that Dr. C. W. Wassam and Dr. Frank Julian Warne took up for the bureau under the direction and supervision of Dr. R. C. McCrea.

No far-reaching or conclusive results have been obtained as yet, but a mass of information has been collected which will be supplemented by the work of other agencies. Government employees in Washington, D. C.,—

a happy hunting ground for the loan companies,—have organized a loan company of their own on a mutual benefit plan. The business men of Seattle have organized a committee of employers to devise a plan for handling a legitimate loan business. Other cities are beginning to act.

Social economists and bankers may well ask whether the social organization of business which has evolved trusts, department stores, savings banks, and insurance institutions of all kinds, has not failed to provide for all the fiscal needs of the community, while the business of lending on salary and wages is possible on its present basis.

The report of the bureau calls attention to the nature of the transaction of a salary loan. The man with real estate may mortgage his property. One who has stock or bonds or business assets for collateral may borrow at the bank at slightly higher rates of interest; one with valuable personal property of small bulk which he can pledge and leave in the possession of the lender may find assistance at a pawnshop, where he pays a higher rate of interest, but not necessarily more than the legitimate cost of the service rendered. This is especially true if he uses an admirable social agency like the Provident Loan Society of New York, which last year loaned over $10,000,000 at a rate not exceeding 12 per cent. per annum, a rate which permitted a moderate compensation to the capital investors, paid the operating expenses on a basis of fair and adequate compensation to the employees of the society, and left a moderate surplus to be invested in real estate for the society's own use. Its social policy has been worked out with great care by its able vice-president, Mr. Frank Tucker. His method is one that is generally regarded as a model for many similar agencies, and the bureau's investigation of salary loans owed much to his co-operation, including the formulation of the social principle upon which the salary-loan business may be logically considered a part of the normally supervised fiscal policy of the State.

A borrower, however, who has none of the forms of security already mentioned may have household goods of value which he must continue to use and cannot put in the possession of the lender. A social agency meets this need in the form of a chattel-mortgage loan company, which charges a rate commensurate with its risks. In none of the cases cited, if St. Bartholomew's Loan Bureau had sufficient capital to meet all the demands for chattel-mortgages, need the rate charged under present business conditions in New York City exceed 12 per cent. With the social agencies mentioned, provision usually ceases for the necessities of the borrower.

Why should there not be another agency, under strict State supervision, as in the case of banks, savings institutions, and insurance companies, where the man with no real estate, collateral, or personal goods of value, but whose need is as great as that of those who have the more acceptable kinds of security, may pledge his wages or his future earning power, with due protection of the rights of those dependent on him for support, and borrow at rates that bear some just relation to the legitimate cost and risks of the business. The report in question does not indicate what a fair rate would be in New York City, but there is evidence that the money-lenders who charge from 200 to 800 per cent. per annum are guilty of gross exploitation of their patrons, whose legitimate needs are preyed upon in the same manner as is the reckless extravagance of those patrons who are highly profitable, but from the point of view of social welfare are wholly inexcusable.

The usury laws have proved ineffectual restraints, and though designed to protect the weak and helpless, often operate to protect the money-lenders from rational and sound competition. It is curious, but undoubtedly true, that lenders on salaries and wages assignments secretly lobby for the enactment of such laws or against their repeal where they are in force. Legislation is proposed in the bureau report, which would legitimatize the business of a salary-loan company and enable it to charge a rate based on the cost of capital, service, and risk of business. It would provide that such business be carried on subject to rigid publicity, and that all charges be regulated by a public fiscal authority, before whom the facts concerning the cost of the business should be presented in periodical reports, and by whom the equitableness of all charges to borrowers should be judicially determined. Through some such legislation and the inauguration of competition by companies organized on the social principle of the Provident Loan Society of New York City the so-called loan sharks may be rendered as negligible a quantity as the pawnbroker of questionable practices of a decade ago.



THE NEW MAP OF EASTERN CANADA.*

(Showing the new boundaries of the provinces of Quebec, Ontario, and Manitoba.)

QUEBEC, BRITAIN'S FRENCH EMPIRE IN AMERICA.

BY LOUIS E. VAN NORMAN.

SIR WILFRID LAURIER'S aggressive campaign in his home province, Quebec, before the Dominion general election which has just been held followed closely upon the tercentenary celebrations in the old city of Champlain. A development exciting less comment, but nevertheless of much significance, was the addition by the federal Parliament to the domain of the province of Quebec of nearly half a million square miles, making a country, already as extensive as France and Germany combined, assume the dimensions of a continent,—of France, Germany, Austria, and Italy taken together. Then the world, which had been hearing so much of the vast extent and the wonderful resources of the Canadian West, suddenly awoke to the fact that, in Eastern Canada, touching the American border and but a few hours' ride from the city of New York, there is an empire about which it knows comparatively nothing.

Americans speak respectfully, though with only uncertain knowledge, of La Salle, Marquette, Joliet, Vérendrye, and the other brave French spirits who explored our great Northwest. It came as a surprise, however, to the citizen of these United States tramping the

* During the closing sessions of the Dominion Parliament, in the middle of July, a resolution was passed extending the boundaries of the provinces of Manitoba, Ontario, and Quebec to the shores of Hudson Bay, incorporating with these three provinces the territorial districts of Kewatin and Ungava. The latter was given to Quebec, except that narrow strip along the coast of Labrador, which will remain, as heretofore, a dependency of Newfoundland. The new alignment makes Quebec the largest province of the Dominion.

streets of Quebec while the city was *en fête* to see the oft-repeated banner glorying in the names of the French explorers and pioneers who, setting out from Quebec, voyaged down the Mississippi and founded so many of our larger American cities. We know that Champlain founded Quebec and Maisonneuve Montreal, but we need to be reminded of the historic truth that Detroit was established by Cadillac, Chicago by Beaulieu, Duluth by DuLhut, Dubuque by the explorer of that name, Milwaukee by Juneau, Peoria by Mallet, St. Paul by Guérin, St. Louis by Laclede and Chouteau, Mobile by Pierre Le Moine d'Iberville, and New Orleans by Bienville, another Le Moine, all Frenchmen from Quebec. From an interest in the sources of their own history,—if for no other reason,—Americans should know more of Britain's French empire on this continent.

Of all the provinces of the Dominion of Canada, Quebec has the most distinctive character. The western provinces are English-speaking and American in spirit, with a touch of real old England on the Pacific Coast. The great central plain of the continent, the prairie provinces of the Dominion, is as like the American West as though not even the flimsy wire fence separated British from American soil. It is really a fence of tariff and customs, nothing more. At heart and in spirit the great region which has Chicago, Minneapolis, and Winnipeg for its capitals is western American; in its press, its language, its clothes, and its sports. Ontario and the Maritime Provinces do not differ widely from New York and New England. In Quebec, however, we have a distinctive people. It is a European people only slightly modified by climate and geography. It is true, this people has also begun to be permeated by the American spirit in business and politics, but it remains Gallic at heart, and the city which is the focus of its history is European, as continentally European as is Havre or Bordeaux.

In July last, as has already been said, by act of Parliament, the 400,000 or more square miles of the territory of Ungava, all the eastern shore of the vast Hudson Bay, was annexed to Quebec, giving that province a territorial area of more than 800,000 square miles and making it the largest geographical division in the Dominion. It is a rich and splendid province, Quebec, more richly endowed with natural resources than even its inhabitants themselves as yet realize. Five of the great rivers of the continent, each more than 500 miles long, flow through the province. Three of its lakes, Mistassini, Chebogomo, and Michikamau (even the names are unknown to Americans), approach Lake Erie in size. In its forests, its mines, its fisheries, and the stupendous water-powers of its rivers there is no geographical division in North America that can surpass it. Quebec supplies a large proportion of all the timber used in the British Isles, and its forests are already furnishing pulp for a goodly proportion of the paper upon which American journals are being printed. Since 1894 the provincial government Department of Mines has explored, reported, sold, and leased 122 different "water-powers," aggregating more than a million horsepower potentiality.

Quebec is a very old land geologically. The Laurentian range of mountains, one of the first bits of land on the continent to rise out of the primeval ocean, is a veritable department store of minerals as yet comparatively untouched. Quebec now supplies more than 90 per cent. of the world's production of asbestos. It also has gold, silver, iron, copper, lead, platinum, zinc, nickel, and mica among the crude minerals, and graphite, cement, and brick in the manufactured mineral products, in vast quantities. Montreal is already drawing a large profit from slates and building stone. There is not much coal, but the immense water-power development from the many great waterfalls will soon, in this electrical age, make the province quite independent of coal. To cite but one illustration: All the electric lighting and street-car and factory power in the city of Quebec is supplied from the Jacques Cartier River and the falls of Montmorency, the latter nine miles distant, a natural feature which, up to a few years ago, was simply an object of admiration for the tourist.

From dairy products the province realizes an annual revenue of $30,000,000, and from its field and live-stock products $85,000,000, although less than 5 per cent. of its land is yet under cultivation. Instead of being a land of perpetual ice and snow, as has been popularly believed, the climate of Quebec, even on the north shore of the St. Lawrence, is really pleasant and stimulating. This northern region has a lighter snowfall than the cities of Ottawa and Montreal. It is in the latitude of England, Denmark, and Northern France, and farther south than any part but the tip of Norway. As an agricultural country Quebec has a bright future. Already the province produces excellent qualities of



A RESOURCE MAP OF EASTERN CANADA.
(Issued by the Dominion Department of the Interior.)

wheat, ripened in the long hours of the strong Canadian sunlight, besides barley, oats, rye, corn, buckwheat, peas, beans, potatoes, and tobacco. Apples, pears, plums, and other small fruits thrive. Cheese is exported in large quantities. Quebec's available timber supply has been estimated at more than 177,000,000 feet in an area of 225,000 square miles. More than $70,000,000 came in from the fisheries during the twenty years ending 1906. The provincial government has begun an intelligent and persistent campaign of colonization, and the public domain is filling up rapidly. Finally, the province is a paradise for the fur hunter and the sportsman.

Quebec, however, is as yet the land of small farms and small factories, a land without trusts, economically unorganized, needing only capital, the railroad, and the captain of industry to bring its boundless possibilities within the actual control of man. The St. Lawrence River, with its canals making continuous connection from Lake Superior to the Atlantic, is as yet the main highway of Quebec Province. Transportation is the crying need, transportation and the business organizer. When the French-Canadians have produced as great a genius in the sphere of business as their beloved Laurier is in the field of statesmanship, then the day of the province will have arrived. There is a large and increasing amount of American capital in the country, but more, much more, is needed. Railroads are being built, but more and more, and still more, railroads are what is needed to convert the vast natural wealth of the province to the use of mankind. The railroad to Lake St. John, about 200 miles north of the

city of Quebec, has already given an immense impetus to colonization into this vast fertile region. The Canadian "habitant" is an excellent workman, one of the best in the world. The virtues of Champlain,—honesty, diligence, thrift, courage, piety, and contentment,—these are the virtues of Jean Baptiste to-day. Before many years the men of large vision and daring initiative will come to organize and use this excellent industrial tool.

The province of Quebec may be divided into two parts,—one comprising the cities of Quebec and Montreal, the other the rest of the province. There are other cities, it is true, but they have not yet attained the size or distinction to entitle them to any comparison with the two capitals,—Quebec, the center of sentiment, and Montreal, the commercial metropolis of the Dominion.

Already the home of more than 350,000 people, and increasing at a rate which will soon make her a rival of any American city in shipping and general trade, Montreal boasts of wealth unequaled by that of any other city of her size in the world. Enjoying the singular distinction of being a large ocean port, although a thousand miles inland from the Atlantic, she is also more than 300 miles nearer to Liverpool than is the city of New York. More than one regular transatlantic line connects Montreal directly with the Old World. Montreal is the great importing and exporting point of the Dominion and has become in a sense the central seaport for much of the western part of the United States, the distance by water from Chicago being 150 miles less than the rail distance from Chicago to New York. Montreal is the chief manufacturing center of Canada, and in it converge the principal railway lines of the Dominion. Montreal has capital,—hundreds of millions. She has millionaires. She has mills and factories which turn out iron and steel, woolen and cotton goods, wood pulp, paper, and leather. But the bulk of her wealth is invested in enterprises outside of the province of Quebec. Her capitalists recently built a railway in Cuba. They were the principal pioneers in the development of electric power in Mexico and Guatemala. They control or dominate the street-car companies in Detroit, Toledo, St. Paul, and other American cities as well as in Havana, Jamaica, and Rio de Janeiro, and two notable Montrealers,—Lord Strathcona and Lord Mount Stephen,—hold a large interest in James J. Hill's railways.

Quebec City, the sentimental center of the province, the American Gibraltar, the most picturesquely located city in North America, in a region of great natural beauty, is growing, though not so rapidly as Montreal, into the life of the modern age. She used to be one of the world's centers of the wooden shipbuilding industry. She still retains her eminence as an ocean port and, while no longer building ships, is busying herself in sending lumber to Europe, and in manufacturing shoes, cotton, leather machinery, paper, and tobacco.

It is not in the scope of this article to discuss the geographical, economic, political, and social reasons why the Dominion of Canada has lagged behind the American Union in general economic advance, why its development has come later, nor, even, why the development of the province of Quebec has been retarded. One thing, however, is certain: The future of the province of Quebec must reckon with a Latin, not an English, speaking population, for the province has become inevitably French,—using the term French to denote the French-speaking Canadian, and the term English to indicate the Canadian of English speech. Each year sees the proporion larger in favor of the French-speaking inhabitants. To-day, out of a population of approximately 1,800,000, less than 300,000 use English as their mother tongue.

It is a very simple and easily intelligible economic law that is at work. The French are crowding out the English by the simple, peaceful process of increasing more rapidly. The "habitants" marry at an early age, and families of sixteen, eighteen, and twenty children are not uncommon among them. The church encourages large families, and the provincial government still sets aside as a prize a generous strip of land for the head of each household in which there are twelve or more living children.

The rising tide of French population has extended over the entire province from near the boundary of New Brunswick on the east and has spilled over into Ontario on the west. Several counties in the latter province already speak French exclusively and return French members to Ottawa. In the so-called "Eastern Townships," which after the American Revolutionary War were English beyond challenge, the people of English speech are now in a constantly dwindling minority. History has shown that in Quebec English-speaking colonists frequently become "Frenchified." One of the visiting regiments during the Tercentenary celebrations,

a Highland regiment from Sherbrooke, with Scottish names and Scottish costumes, knew no other tongue but French. The French increase is due not only to the command of the church to be fruitful and multiply, or to the fact that French families are hardworking, shrewd, and frugal, that they are content with a competence. It is also accounted for by the fact that they are still in that stage of economic development in which children are an asset, not a liability.

It should never be forgotten in discussing conditions and problems in Quebec that, up to the present, the French have always labored under the difficulty of occupying an inferior economic position. With the exception of the very few of noble rank who held control during the years of French domination, the entire bulk of the inhabitants was peasantry. This peasantry, under the stimulus of the splendid Canadian climate and resources and the example of the United States of America, has been gradually lifting itself out of this economic inferiority, until to-day it is fairly holding its own if not beating the English. With smaller families and the English drift away from the farms to the cities and to the great West, the dominant power is being shifted from English to French hands. Not that there is evident a contest, except the polite, silent, peaceful, but grim contest for race survival. France and England may never fight another battle, but on the plains of Quebec the inevitable law of population will make the French win.

As yet the large financial and industrial concerns in the province are in the hands of English-speaking people, men of large view and splendid initiative, but few in number and yearly becoming fewer. The French are learning. The "habitant" has for several generations been in those businesses and functions which touch the life of the great mass of the people, and these occupations have been gradually drifting into his hands. All the smaller distributing businesses, all the lower public functionaries, all the priests, and most of the physicians and lawyers are French. The habitant is already a winner in the economic game and is winning it American fashion. Louis Payette was only a poor stone-mason, but by his own unaided efforts he rose high in the world. He built the Chateau Frontenac and has become the Mayor of Montreal. Now that technical and industrial schools have been established in Montreal and elsewhere throughout the province, the "habitant" has entered upon the last stage of economic development.

The French are also more flexible and successful in politics than their English compatriots. They master both languages, and it is an accepted fact that Mr. Laurier, Mr. Lemieux, and Mr. Bourassa, all of French birth, are the best orators in English at Ottawa.

"Happy are the triumphs without victims." This, said a French gentleman to the writer, represents the attitude of the French-speaking people in Canada. The Quebec Tercentenary celebration which was really in commemoration of the 150 years of French power in Quebec, from Champlain to Montcalm, was a celebration of peaceful victories, not of the victories of war. Other nations came to the New World for conquest or for gold; Champlain gave to America a settlement, to spread the glory of France and the peace of religion. A century and a half ago the lilies of France gave way to the union jack, but to-day it is a Frenchman who sways the destinies of the Dominion.

Materially, there can be no doubt that the French-Canadian is quite contented under British rule. Sentimentally, he looks toward France, although during recent years his devotion to the church has made him a little cold toward the oversea republic which has broken with Rome. We Canadians, said the Frenchman I have quoted above, cherish the hope of seeing Canada "playing in this New World the role played in the Old World by France. But our dream goes still further. We want French Canada to become the force that commands respect, the brain that thinks, the hand that accomplishes. We protest our loyalty to the British crown, but before the interest of the empire we place the interest of Canada and before all the rest the love of our province." "Are the French-Canadians really loyal to Great Britain?" an old French churchman was asked. "If you English let us alone," he replied.

Take a French-speaking population out of France and away from most of the problems and traditions that vex the Old World country, with nothing to undo, a new, magnificently endowed country as a heritage, living and working under the protecting egis of the British constitution, which it thoroughly respects, with no foreign complications to face, a birth-rate increasing by leaps and bounds, and a gradual permeation by the American spirit,—why should not French Canada have a magnificent future?

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

EVIDENCES OF SWEDISH INFLUENCE IN LONGFELLOW'S "EVANGELINE."

THERE have been well-authenticated cases of supposed plagiarism in which musical composers have satisfactorily demonstrated that the criticised passages were written by them in complete unconsciousness of any external influence. The interesting question arises, "Can a poet unconsciously reproduce actual scenes, reminiscences of travel, in a poem admittedly fictitious?" An affirmative answer appears to be forthcoming in the case of Longfellow's "Evangeline." Nathaniel Hawthorne has recorded, in his "American Notebooks," that he supplied the poet with the theme; but as regards Acadia, Longfellow himself admitted that he had never been in Nova Scotia, and that, as far as he remembered (at the time he was writing to a friend who had questioned him on the subject), the sources he relied on when describing Grand Pré were Judge Haliburton's "An Historical and Statistical Account of Nova Scotia" and the Abbé Raynal's work on the settlements in the East and West Indies. Now, as Mr. J. N. McIlwraith has pointed out in "A Book About Longfellow," the inhabitants of the real Acadia were "wretchedly poor, ignorant, and priest-ridden. Not in the whole country, one might venture to say, was there a farmsteading so comfortable as that which the poet bestows on Evangeline's father." Therefore "the picture he paints of the Acadian bliss that prevailed at Grand Pré before the arrival of the British ships *must have been drawn from some memory of his European travels.*" In the current number of *Poet Lore* Mr. Edward Thostenberg cites a number of passages from "Evangeline" which, when compared with the facts regarding the poet's interest in Sweden, its people, and its traditions, "indicate that his memory of that country and his knowledge of its language and literature lent color to almost every scene in Part I. of the poem."

As is well known, Longfellow, soon after he received his professorship of modern languages at Harvard (1835), sailed for Sweden, where he devoted the ensuing summer to Scandinavian studies. In the *North American Review* for July, 1837, he published an article on Bishop Tegnér's "Frithiof's Saga," in the introductory portion of which some of the impressions of his stay in Sweden are recorded.

> His recollections center mainly about two thoughts: the thought of the gloom and solitude of a forest landscape in Sweden, on the one hand, and, on the other, the "primeval simplicity," the idyllic life of the peasant population. A typical Swedish landscape is pictured in these words: "You pass out from the gate of the city, and, as if by magic, the scene changes to a wild, woodland landscape. Around you are forests of fir. Overhead hang the long, fanlike branches, *trailing with moss,* and heavy with red and blue cones. . . . On a wooden bridge you cross a little silver stream. Anon you come forth into a *pleasant and sunny land of farms.*"

Now this is precisely the kind of landscape described in the opening lines of "Evangeline":

> This is the forest primeval. The murmuring pines and the hemlocks,
> *Bearded with moss* and in garments green, indistinct in the twilight,
> Stand, like Druids of old, with voices sad and prophetic,
> * * * * * *
> Where is the thatch-roofed village, the home of Acadian farmers,
> * * * * * *
> Waste are those *pleasant farms,* and the farmers forever departed!

In noticing the more prominent features in the religious life of a Swedish village, Longfellow says: "Frequent, too, are the village churches, standing by the roadside. . . . Near the churchyard gate stands a poor-box . . . with a sloping wooden roof to keep off the rain."

The "poor-box," sloping roof (penthouse), and "roadside" are all met with in the following lines of "Evangeline":

> "Under the sycamore tree were hives overhung by a *penthouse,*
> Such as the traveler sees in regions remote by the *roadside,*
> Built o'er a *box for the poor* or the blessed image of Mary."

The significance of these parallels is obvious. Who is the "traveler," if not Longfellow himself, and what "regions remote" does he have in mind if not the rural districts of Sweden?

It seems almost certain that another of Tegnér's works, "The Children of the Lord's Supper," furnished material for some of the descriptive passages in "Evangeline." Father Felician in the latter poem and the parish priest in the former are described in almost identical terms. Again, when the English guard from the ships march up to the church at Grand Pré to announce the king's manifesto to the villagers, the women are pictured as waiting in the churchyard, decorating the graves of the dead,—practically an adaptation of the following lines from "The Children of the Lord's Supper":

Swept and clean was the churchyard. Adorned with a leaf-woven arbor
Stood its old-fashioned gate; and within upon each cross of iron
Hung was a fragrant garland, new-twined by the hands of affection.

It is further to be noticed that Longfellow makes use of certain words and phrases peculiar to peasant life in Sweden; for example: thatch-roofs, projecting gables, the wooden latch on the house door and the wooden bars on the barn doors, the horn bows on the notary's glasses, the wooden shoes of Michael the fiddler, and the dower of the bride in flocks of sheep and in cattle. Besides all these comparisons,—Mr. Thostenberg submits many which lack of space prevents reproduction here,—there is Longfellow's own remark, made ten or twelve years before he wrote "Evangeline": "There is something patriarchal still lingering about rural life in Sweden, which renders it a fit *theme* for *song*. Almost primeval simplicity reigns over that Northern land, almost primeval solitude and stillness." "Perhaps," says Mr. Thostenberg, "he had waited all those years for conditions to arise under which he might most favorably carry out his thought of a *song* on the above *theme*."

Finally, the scene of the reunion of the lovers is laid, as we know, in Philadelphia,

hence in the immediate vicinity of the very spot where the Swedes had planted their first colony, in 1638, and so close to their church that from this place Evangeline could hear the singing of Swedish hymns as she entered the door of the almshouse:

Distant and soft on her ear fell the chimes from the belfry of Christ Church,
While, intermingled with these, across the meadows were wafted
Sounds of psalms, that were sung by the Swedes in their church at Wicaco.

THE REAL PRINCE BULOW.

THE present German Chancellor is one of the very few Continental statesmen,—indeed, almost the only one,—whose speeches and views frequently attain to headlines and double columns in the British and American press. As the man officially responsible for the utterances, views, and "interviews" of the German monarch, Prince Bülow has, during the past few weeks, loomed very large in the interest of the entire world.

What manner of man is this German statesman, this lineal successor to Bismarck? A careful, appreciative character sketch of him by Sydney Garfield Morris appears in a recent issue of the *Nineteenth Century and After*. Prince Bülow, says Mr. Morris, is essentially a phrase-maker.

Many of his phrases have become international catchwords like those of Bismarck and Disraeli; and his opinions are quoted and criticised as having an importance to Europe equaled only by those of some four or five rulers and outstanding personalities with whom the general public is far better acquainted. All his movements are carefully chronicled, and every declaration of policy receives the gravest attention, both within and beyond the limits of his own country.

Speaking of the official problems and difficulties facing the German Chancellor, Mr. Morris says:

Prince Bülow is now in his eleventh year of office,—from 1897 to 1900 as Foreign Secretary, and thence onward as Chancellor of the empire. Most of his critics ignore two facts in their survey: Firstly, the terrible difficulties,—especially with regard to foreign affairs,—which beset him on every hand, difficulties not of his own making, for he either inherited them from the former Chancellor or encountered them afresh from a too-impulsive sovereign, bent on being to a great extent his own Foreign Minister and easily influenced by other counsels than those of his responsible advisers. Secondly, that German politics cannot under any circumstances be measured by British standards, and that, therefore, thanks to the hopeless division of parties, the predominant influence of the crown, and many other factors, much that would be incomprehensible in English parliamentary life is a simple necessity of political existence in Germany. His eight years as Chancellor have been practically one long series of conflicts,—with the Socialists on home government, with



UNDER PERSONAL RULE IN GERMANY.

(Bülow as the lightning conductor on the royal residence at Berlin.)

From *Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart).

some hostile court influence on foreign affairs, with the Center on colonial questions, and, finally, with extremists of all parties, who would cheerfully wreck the empire in order to carry out some theory of their own, or to serve the "particularist" interests of their special state as against the welfare of the whole. But in spite of all this he can look back on a great deal of good work accomplished,—accomplished, too, in the teeth of difficulties.

As to the character of the man and his personal appearance, we are told that perhaps the first thing to strike any one is the contrast between his appearance in private and in public.

It is a great contrast between the imperturbable, almost cynical attitude assumed in public and the gracious, kindly, chivalrous nature revealed to those who know the real man,—a nature retaining the magic charm of sincerity and singleness of heart, in spite of that wide knowledge of the world and brilliant culture which have made him one of the foremost diplomatists in Europe.

In personal appearance the Chancellor is a worthy representative of that Mecklenburg aristocracy the gallant bearing of whose members made such an impression on the great Napoleon that he said to his marshals: "I can make you into kings, but not into Mecklenburg nobles." Tall, with a stately carriage of the head and shoulders which gives him grace and distinction, he has the broad brow of intellect, and a mouth and chin (clean-shaven except for the soldierly mustache) which show courage, energy, and decision. But it is the eyes which arrest attention,—eyes beautiful and fearless, that meet you with a directness and sincerity rare indeed in any class, but for a diplomatist almost unique. It is a face steadfast, proud, and self-reliant, yet with a sunny-tempered kindness and grace in it which wins straight to the heart.

GERMANY'S SERIOUS FINANCIAL DILEMMA.

WHEN a European cabinet minister takes recourse to addressing the nation through the means of a signed article in the periodical press, then one may be quite sure that the theme is big, important, and commanding. An instance of the kind just now presents itself: In one of Germany's leading monthly magazines, the *Deutsche Rundschau*, of Berlin, appears an article on the pressing necessity of reforming the empire's finances, by his Excellency the Imperial Minister of Finance, Herr Reinhold Sydow. He says:

The putting in order of the imperial finances is a vital question for the German Empire and its component states. It must be solved, and solved now, since postponement can but make the solution more difficult, I feel confident that the recognition of this need will appeal in its full seriousness to the nation and to the national Parliament. It seems to me scarcely conceivable, that the welfare, perhaps the stability of the German Empire, created and welded together at the cost of so much work, idealism, self-sacrifice, and blood, should be exposed to risk because the German people, in spite of its increasing prosperity, refuses to provide the means necessary for the empire's preservation.

At the close of the year 1906 there was a deficit of 28,000,000 marks, in the national treasury, 1907, showed one of 41,000,000, and for 1908 the estimate points to 75,000,000. Meanwhile, the national debt has been growing. The funded debt, only 72,000,000 marks thirty years ago, has now reached the sum of four and a quarter billions, and about one billion more will have to be borrowed for expenditures to which the coun-

try is pledged during the next five years. Besides, there is a floating debt, payable in short-term treasury bonds, for which the current year's budget demands a maximum of 475,000,000 marks. The condition of the money market in late years has brought about a constant rise in the rate of interest on government securities, while at the same time such securities have declined in price. Not only this, but countries poorer than Germany show better figures in respect to loans and interest, take Italy, for example. Her 3½ per cent. bonds stand at 104.5, but Germany's only at 92.25. And strange to say, the country's finances have been going from bad to worse during a period of peace, when German commerce and industry have developed quite extraordinarily, when the state of agriculture has been healthy, when the prosperity of the individual has risen, and when, in fact, all ranks of the population have attained a higher scale of comfort and prosperity than they ever enjoyed before.

The Minister lays down four broad principles upon which the badly needed finance reforms should be based. Equalization of expenditure and revenue he admits to be self-evident; he advocates that the flooding of the money market with great quantities of short-term treasury bonds be stopped; he calls for a readjustment of the financial relations between the empire and its several states, some of whose contributions toward imperial expenses are "deferred"; he desires that the borrowing policy be completely changed. Herr Sydow admits that to some extent borrowing must be resorted to, so that the present generation may not have to pay too heavily for certain benefits now being prepared for the next, such as widening the canal between the North Sea and the Baltic, building up the fleet, and strengthening the fortifications. But there remain regular current outlays to be dealt with which must be met from year to year, first and foremost among them those incurred for national defense.

How economies might be effected, it is difficult to imagine. In the first place, the government has decided to increase the salaries and house-allowances of its civil officials. Next, Parliament is demanding higher pay for the country's soldiers and sailors. A law has been passed reducing the duty on sugar. A large sum must be set apart toward debt-cancellation. The imperial fund which helps the maintenance of the national old-age-and-disability pension system will be exhausted by 1912, and must then be replenished. Certain methods of revenue production are very unpopular, and will probably have to be given up, like the tax on railway tickets, for instance. And then there is the constant bugbear of the said "deferred" contributions of the sundry federated states to the imperial exchequer, which for the years 1906 to 1909 may be estimated at 180,000,000 marks. Altogether, declares this authority, so far from any hope of economics existing, the question will arise how to provide half a billion marks annually for the next five years.

As one of the means of increasing the imperial revenues, his Excellency suggests heavier taxation on tobacco, brandy, and beer. Salt is too much of a necessity of life to be taxed any further, he maintains, and the status of the sugar tax was settled at the time



"HIGH FINANCE" IN GERMANY AND RUSSIA.

THE CZAR: "My barrel organ is better; it will play as I like."
BÜLOW: "No, my man is better; when I squeeze him, out comes the cash."
From *Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart).

of the recent international sugar convention.

Brandy, tobacco, and beer remain as especially suited for additional imposts, since they are not only articles of general popular consumption, but of enjoyment pure and simple, and since submission of the consumers to such imposts would therefore to a certain extent be voluntary in character. The assessment of articles of enjoyment is indeed much smaller in Germany than in other large countries. Brandy and tobacco are subject to far higher levies in free-trade England, as well as in Austria and in France, than in the German Empire. In England, the rates on beer are also much higher, and Southern Germany proves that it could support larger assessment without prejudice to quality or bulk of consumption. In the present financial situation, the German Empire cannot cover the immense deficiency to be made up without strong recourse to brandy, tobacco, and beer.

But the imposts on the articles just named must be arranged in such a way that they may fall on the general public and not ruin the manufacturers and traders. Neither must an increased tax on wines put the vintners out of commission. Luxuries,—as distinguished from "articles of enjoyment,"—used by the wealthier members of the community, should likewise be taxed; only it has been found that luxuries do not yield much revenue, which in their case is subject to high expense of collection. It looks, therefore, as if the burden threatened to weigh most heavily upon the lower and middle classes, or upon persons of small and moderate fortune.

In order to equalize things, it seems to me imperative that the revenue derivable from articles of consumption be supplemented by levies aimed at personal property. . . . As the most appropriate way of assessing which I recommend a general duty, affecting all heirs, on inheritances. . . . The already existing imperial testamentary duties for collateral heirs may remain untouched . . . and fortunes up to 10,000 or 20,000 marks exempted. . . . Personally, I am firmly convinced that financial improvement on the sole basis of taxing articles of consumption is a sheer impossibility, and that the addition of a general inheritance tax is a *sine qua non*.

This species of impost could be established without interfering with the existing rights of the individual German states of raising similar taxes. But imperial legacy duties still not sufficing to complete the necessary national finance reform, the said individual states must be asked to increase their contributions to the imperial exchequer.

Economic changes of so great a scope will not, Germany's Minister of Finance believes, be effected without a lot of political unrest, for the different political parties may be trusted to make capital of the situation with the object of gaining advantages over, and concessions from, one another. There are also the interests of the individual states to be considered, and their relations to the empire.

COUNT ZEPPELIN, A HERO TO THE GERMAN PEOPLE.

THE extraordinary and world-wide interest aroused by the recent remarkable performance of Count Zeppelin and his airship was heightened by the circumstance that the daring and resourceful aeronaut had passed the age of three-score and ten. The truly admirable,—we may say inspiring,—personality of this German inventor is warmly pictured by Hugo Eckener, his collaborator and assistant for many years, in a recent issue of *Nord und Süd*. The first portion of the article is devoted to the technical details of construction of the airship; the last deals with the man himself. From this we quote:

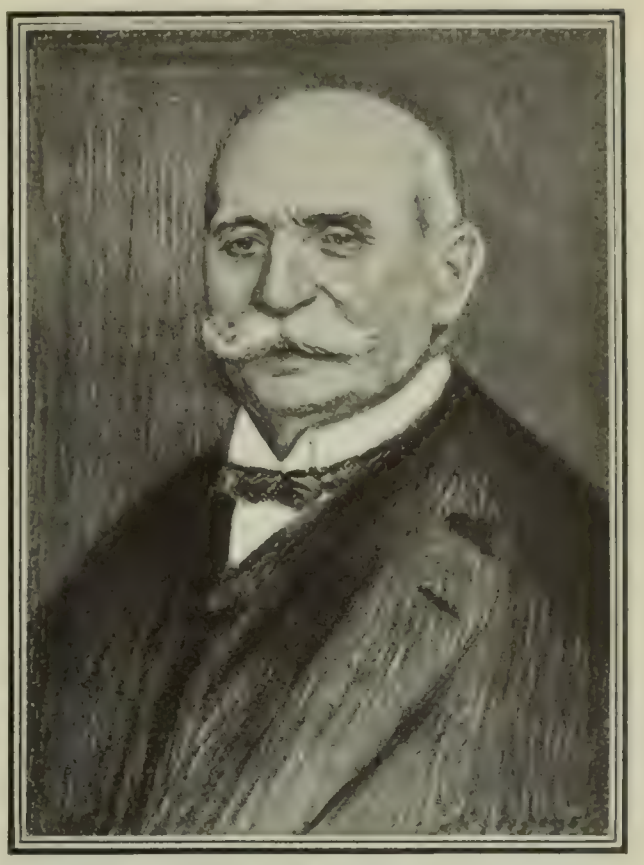
Count Zeppelin is not a mere inventor for the German people; he is their hero.

"Work, do not despair!" This Carlylean motto has never been better exemplified than in the person of Count Zeppelin. Those who know must be touched by the struggles and sufferings of this rare character in the cause of his ideas, and the German nation now rewards him for them by the greatness of the triumph they are preparing for him. Scorn and opposition greeted him when he, the "layman," the old cavalry officer, conceived in the early '90's, the project of his "rigid" airship. He had to fight step by step, by tenacious effort, for recognition of the many,—even the smallest,—technical and "aërological" conceptions that he proposed. His untiring energy in unraveling the thousand problems confronting him, his undaunted zeal to secure disciples for his theories, his brave front in face of poverty, envy, and misconception, were truly to be admired. And whoever was present at Allgän (January 17, 1906) when, erect like an oak in a storm, he stood undismayed beneath the wreck of his second airship, at a time which brought him other sore trials as well, must have bowed in reverence before such strength and greatness of soul. He towered to truly heroic proportions those sad spring months following that catastrophe, when, in the face of the whole world, he built his ship once more with his last resources, and with this act, which finally brought him success, he conquered

the hearts and sympathies of all, the world over, and became the darling of the millions, who ever long to open their souls wide to a hero and leader.

Herr Eckener gives a few characteristic incidents illustrating Zeppelin's modesty and humanity.

It was in October, 1906. We accompanied the Count to witness the first ascension of his third ship. The second was a wreck; his last hope hung upon this new one. Would it succeed? We sat there meditative and anxious, no one disposed to speak a word. Then the Count, turning to his nephew, asked whether the men on the "Prahm" had had something to eat, and had arrangements been made for the reception of Miss X—, and half a dozen further evidences of the most attentive care for the welfare of others. That in the next hour his own fate would be decided did not seem to concern him. It succeeded! The first thing he did was to sail to his brother, who was lying ill at Constance. And the brother listened, rejoicing to the murmur of the air-screws above the house and smiled happily. A few days later he peacefully passed away. Love and kindliness are the fundamental traits of Zeppelin's character, and it must, indeed, have been his own nature from which he steadily drew his faith in the success of the good cause. Sunny temperaments are not an easy prey to pessimism. Yet if hours came, —and they did come,—when he wanted to abandon his efforts and yield to the general prejudice, his glowing patriotism, in which all his altruistic feelings culminate, compelled him to persist.



COUNT ZEPPELIN, "CONQUEROR OF THE AIR."

THE CLEVELAND STREET-RAILWAY TANGLE.

WRITING in the August number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Mr. E. W. Bemis, of the City of Cleveland Water Department, said, in the opening sentence of his article on "The Street-Railway Settlement in Cleveland," "A most remarkable chapter of street-railway history in this country has just come to an end in Cleveland." Events have shown that, so far from the chapter being ended, many unlooked-for paragraphs have been added to it, and its close seems still a long way off. Sketched briefly, the history of the affair may be stated as follows:

Under the State law of Ohio, street-railway franchises can only be granted for periods of twenty-five years. The old company, the Cleveland Electric Railway Company, had at various times secured franchises, the average life of which, at the close of 1907, was conceded by the company to be less than four years. By the so-called "consent law," a company, having once secured the consent of abutting property owners of any street, need not again secure them when its franchises ran out. Any new company, however, wishing to bid for the franchises, must present to the Council the consent of more than one-half of the property owners on each street of the proposed route. Consequently the only effective plan open to such new company is to find a new route along streets not occupied by an existing company. This plan was adopted by Mayor Tom L. Johnson soon after his election in 1901 as the best method of securing reasonable rates.

Any control of rates by a State commission was out of the question, for had such a commission been created it would surely have been manned by friends of the existing street railways. The remedy of municipal ownership, to which the Mayor is thoroughly committed in principle, was also out of the question, because not allowed by State law. The course adopted of fighting a monopoly with a competitor has been so universally condemned by experience that Mr. Johnson was careful to introduce safeguards against consolidation with the existing company, which during several years of warfare proved absolutely sufficient for the purpose: . . . The method adopted was that of the organization of a street-railway company on or-



MAYOR TOM L. JOHNSON, OF CLEVELAND.

dinary lines, with full power to sell stock for its legitimate purposes and operate its road.

This competitive experiment was hedged about by three great difficulties: (1) To secure consents even on streets where there were no tracks; (2) to get into the heart of the city where there were no tracks; (3) to raise money. All these difficulties were overcome, notwithstanding the fact that "tens of thousands of dollars was spent by the old company in paying property owners to refuse consents to the new company." Mayor Johnson himself, in company with the editor of the *Press,* the principal evening paper, at least as regards circulation, guaranteed 6 per cent. dividends on the stock. Later the legality of the Mayor's holdings was challenged, and he withdrew his guaranties. Ultimately popular subscriptions, mostly in small sums, of over $1,000,000 were secured, and the first cars were run on the new lines on November 1, 1906. A year later its business had increased to 696,876 fares, and in March last had reached 1,033,609.

Certain concerns that had obtained franchises to run at three-cent fares having been forced out of business by the courts, there remained but two of these in the field,—viz., the Forest City Railway and the Low Fare Company. The former was leased to the Municipal Traction Company, which by agreement operated cars on the tracks of the Low Fare Company. After having declined an offer by the City Council to purchase it in 1905, the Cleveland Electric Company Railway agreed, in 1907, to consider a proposal to sell its interests and appointed a representative, Mr. Johnson being appointed the representative of the City Council. Open sessions were arranged and nearly 100 meetings were held. It was agreed that the properties of the Forest City and Low Fare companies should be accepted at their actual cost; and the contest therefore was limited to the value to be assigned to the Cleveland Electric Railway Company, which property was to be taken over as from January 1, 1908. The amount finally paid to this company was $22,184,131, and to the other two companies $1,805,600.

> Three transactions occurred simultaneously on April 27, 1908. . . . (1) The sale of all the properties of the Forest City and the Low Fares companies, at the par value of the stock and of the liabilities, to the old company, the Cleveland Electric Railway Company; (2) the passage by the City Council of the so-called guaranty franchise to the Cleveland Electric Railway Company, and (3) the lease of the property and rights of the latter to the Municipal Traction Company.

On the following day all people were carried free upon the street-car lines of the city, and, writes Mr. Bemis in his article (from which the foregoing summary has been made), "it is expected that this will be the custom every year hereafter on that day, or on April 27, as a memorial of the interesting event." Mayor Johnson, addressing a large meeting of representative citizens at the Chamber of Commerce on the night of April 27, said:

> We have been struggling for something even beyond the accomplishment of three-cent fares, or municipal ownership, or the city's ownership of the streets, or any of those questions. We are trying, this people is trying, to set an example that others may follow in self-government, in some plan by which people living in great congested centers can govern themselves in the way that the greatest happiness will come to them. This is our big object. . . . To the great public and this Council, who have helped in this work, I say that we are proud of being a part of it. . . . I am glad to take a humble part in it, and I would rather, my friends, leave to those little grandchildren of mine the feeling that this community, which has trusted me, will never have occasion to regret it, than to leave them any other heritage on earth.

It is the unexpected that happens,—at Cleveland as at other places. On the morning of October 23 last the Cleveland papers appeared with big headlines: "THE PEOPLE WIN. MAYOR BEATEN BY 605"; "JOHNSON GOES DOWN TO DEFEAT WHEN SUREST OF VICTORY." The wisdom of the proposed ordinance, making a grant of such wide powers to the Municipal Traction Company, was referred to a committee of the Chamber of Commerce and evoked much hostile criticism therein. The referendum committee voted against the grant by 167 votes to 129; and the citizens, as stated above, also registered an adverse vote of more than 600. On November 12 announcement was made in the daily press that receivers had been appointed for the property of the Municipal Traction Company and the Cleveland Railway (formerly the Cleveland Electric Railway Company). Cleveland's street-railway history is still in the making.

THE MACHINE-GUN IN THE UNITED STATES ARMY.

IT is nearly forty years since the employment of the mitrailleuse in the Franco-German conflict revealed to the world another addition to the death-dealing instruments of modern warfare. In the interim inventions of a similar kind have multiplied; and now there are numbers to choose from, ranging from those discharging bullets at the rate of 400 or more a minute to others firing solid cast-iron and steel shot, explosive shells, and canister, and piercing steel plates at a distance of thousands of yards. The machine-gun having "made good," the problem is what to do with it,—that is to say, to which branch of the army shall it be assigned, and what form of organization shall the machine-gun service take. In January last Captain John H. Parker, of the Twenty-eighth Infantry, U. S. A., was directed by the Secretary of War to

> devise a form of organization for machine-guns to be attached to regiments of infantry, to write the necessary manual or manuals for its instruction and government, and to organize a provisional machine-gun company to exemplify the organization and manual.

Captain Parker (familiarly known as "Machine-Gun Parker" from his expert knowledge of this arm) was furnished with all the requisite officers and men, animals and material, and was afforded unlimited facilities in the matters of drill, instruction, and administration. The manual has been prepared, and, after having been approved by a board of infantry officers, has been transmitted to the War Department. In the *Journal of the Military Service Institution* Captain Parker gives his reasons for some of the regulations proposed on the manual, and explains why he rejected certain proposals from other infantry officers. Of these latter, one proposed that "the new element should be a mixed outfit, armed partly with machine-guns and partly with small pieces of artillery." Another suggested that "one company of infantry should be taken from each existing regiment and equipped with machine-guns." A third proposal was "that, instead of a separate form of organization, the machine-guns should be issued directly to the infantry and cavalry; consolidated with these arms of the service." These propositions, says Captain Parker, evidenced a confusion of ideas. There was a failure to separate the functions of the different arms of the service and to discriminate between technical training and tactical employment. "Technical training and instruction are one thing, and it must be the best we can make it. Tactical employment is another and a different thing, and it is within the discretion of the commanding officer to whom the detachment reports for duty." Therefore,

> after mature consideration, it seemed best not to take away the guns from the infantry and cavalry, not to lessen the authority of commanding officers of regiments and posts, but *to insure that they shall have at their disposal units which can perform the functions for which they are designed.*

It has been found from experience that, just as for the signal corps, the hospital corps, or any other technical service, selected men will be necessary for the machine-gun service. As to the technical instruction to be given,

> it cannot be expected that all officers of infantry will be qualified, or willing to qualify themselves, for this duty. The proposed machine-gun service must be *in addition* to the infantry and cavalry. Hence vacancies will be created. These should be distributed pro rata to the different arms of the service, in order that all may share equally in the benefit.

As far as field officers of machine-gun service are concerned, Captain Parker considers that (we quote his own words here):

they should be permanent appointments, selected by the President from those officers believed to possess the greatest aptitude for this duty, and should be assigned to department and army headquarters, as are signal officers, and placed in charge of the machine-gun service in order to develop it to the point of highest efficiency. . . . It would be better to make all the officers of the machine-gun service permanent appointments, in a separate line of promotion, with a technical course of instruction, backed by technical examinations peculiar to their own line of duty.

With regard to the fighting unit for war, we subjoin some of the more interesting items in Captain Parker's article.

The unit suitable for technical instruction in time of peace must be such that we are assured of having the very best fighting-machine unit for war.

The experience of the world indicates that machine-guns should not be employed singly, but in pairs, at least. . . . The smallest unit to be assigned to a regiment and capable of supplying a subdivision to each battalion of that regiment is six guns, organized in three platoons of two guns each.

In time of war each of the peace platoons would be expanded by one gun, making a company of nine guns,—the correct proportion,—with four officers. This expansion can be quickly made, and with the minimum deterioration of efficiency; for we have the necessary officers, trained pointers, and packers; we have the guns in the ordnance storehouse, and we can always buy the mules. With trained packers it is not a great task to break in green mules in an old pack-train. . . . The company thus expanded would be attached to brigade headquarters, its platoons being distributed thence by direction of the brigade commander to his regiments. The captain takes tactical control only when the brigade commander directs that the guns act in company.

Captain Parker states that out of 142 officers who have been connected with machine-gun experiments for the past three years, 119 were in favor of a separate organization of machine-gun units for technical instruction, and of attaching them to the regiments for tactical employment. The proposed system has the decisive advantage that the same commanding officers who handle the machine-gun units in peace will supervise them in time of war.

IRELAND COMING INTO HER OWN.

IF any evidence were needed to show that things are actually beginning to mend in the Emerald Isle, the mere fact of the appearance of such an article as that on "The New Ireland," by Maude Radford Warren, in *Collier's* for November 7, would of itself be ample testimony. Ten years ago,—indeed, five years ago,—one would have scanned the magazines and newspapers in vain for "An optimistic report on what that brave little country is doing to find the way to political and religious unity, and to economic independence," which is how the subtitle of the article in questions reads. Says this writer:

To the casual observer Ireland may still seem a most distressful country. The ratio of her insane is higher than that of any other country; twice as many die of consumption as do in England; 5,000,000 acres of land are barren, and the 15,000,000 of fruitful area is divided into 500,000 holdings, 200,000 of which are uneconomic. . . . The railways are miserably organized and charge one-third more for freight rates than do English railways. Twelve million pounds is spent annually on imported goods that could just as well be made at home. . . . And, above all, nearly 40,000 of her strongest go yearly to America.

And yet this brave little country, whose causes have always been measured by their defects, is coming into her own. . . . Slowly, by remembering that importance to a country is not given by a king, but by looking to herself . . . she is being recreated from within. For the first time in her history she is approaching the fundamental essential of a nation—unity.

The great political and religious division between north and south is no longer a living issue. An Independent Orange League now addresses itself "to all Irishmen whose country stands first in their affections." There has arisen a feeling of interdependence and unity among all Irishmen, and a tendency to put first the good of the country."

Ireland has been aptly described as the "Seething Pot," and seething she is.

Commissioners have investigated the Irish railways, with a possible view of consolidating them under state control. The government of Dublin Castle has been overhauled; even the workings of the Congested Districts Board and the Department of Agriculture have been investigated, to say nothing of the administration of the Poor law.

But all this "official ferment is as nothing when compared with the unofficial."

Newspapers and priests, peeresses and village associations, shopkeepers, and farm laborers, all are working to regenerate Ireland. . . . The government will build a four-roomed cottage for a laborer for £135. A baroness will guarantee to sell all the linen embroidered on her estate. The National Board of Education is putting better books into the schools. . . . Whether one looks at the hard-tufted carpets of Donegal, the boats of Kerry and Cork, or the plows of Wexford, it all spells progress.



From *Collier's Weekly.*

ONE OF IRELAND'S CHIEF PRODUCTS. LINEN BLEACHING ON BELFAST GREEN.

Naturally the land question is uppermost. The Wyndham Land act of 1903 placed the sum of £100,000,000 ($500,000,000) at the disposal of landlord and tenant. Every landlord who sold land to a tenant was to receive a bonus of 12 per cent. on the purchase-money. The understanding was that for the first three years the outlay should not exceed £5,000,000 a year; but the land-hungry tenants could not be supplied fast enough, and land to the value of £20,000,000 ($100,000,000) was actually sold within eighteen months. In the west, however, where the poverty is worst, many of the landlords refuse to sell their immense grazing ranches, and the people have to starve on five or seven acre holdings of bog lands. At the present rate of progress it will probably be twenty years before the peasants completely own the land. But a hopeful view is taken by all.

"Aha," said the peasant father of a new son, "manny's the time I have sat at me cabin door, lookin' wistful at the pitatie in me hand, thinkin' dare I ate it mesilf, or must I give it to the pig that pays the rint. There will be no such difficulty as that for the young lad, you mark me."

It is curious to notice that the old political parties,—both the Unionists and the Nationalists,—have lost their hold on the people of Ireland. The two chief factors in national unity are the Sinn Fein (pronounced *Shin Fain,* and meaning "Ourselves Alone") and the Gaelic League. The former includes the following among its comprehensive projects:

Ireland, with her splendid resources, must build up manufactures. It must be a crime for an Irishman to purchase imported goods when he can buy Irish-made. Irish capital must be kept in Ireland. People's banks must be formed, as in Germany, Belgium, Italy, and Switzerland. Irish-American capitalists must be invited to help develop the country industrially. The bogs must be drained, and the beet-sugar industry must be developed.

The Gaelic League has nearly 1000 branches throughout the country, and these are supported by the farthings of the poor. It aims

to keep the Irish from excitement, and from hectic politics; to work for temperance and anti-emigration; to puncture the shams and lies that are part of the many banes of Irish life; to foster honesty and direct thinking.

Numerous associations exist for the industrial development of the country,—lace-making, silk embroidery, and similar industries are being fostered. The work of Sir Horace Plunkett calls for special notice. Eighteen years ago he started his co-operative movement (1890) by establishing a co-operative creamery.

To-day the co-operative system is in force all over Ireland. There are

more than 800 societies with a membership of 80,000 . . . more than 300 creameries, close to 100 agricultural banks, and some 250 credit societies, which place capital at the disposal of small farmers and laborers on easy terms.

Nine years ago the government organized the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction, and Sir Horace Plunkett was made vice-president. This works hand in hand with the Congested Districts Board, established to relieve the people of the depressed west.

And now, Ireland, having given 4,000,000 of her people,—the best half of herself,—to America, considers that America may justly be asked to give in return some of her capital for investment. "She does not want charity from us, but co-operation."

IS AUTHORITY TO GIVE WAY TO SYMPATHY?

A CONTRIBUTION to what is frequently called "the literature of protest," appears in the Roman fortnightly magazine, *L'Italia Moderna*. Written by Signor Isauto Acclive, this article has for its object the denunciation of authority, but is not conceived in a solely iconoclastic spirit, for Signor Acclive's fundamental motive is evidently humanitarian, his views in some particulars resembling Count Tolstoi's. For authority, our Italian would wish to see substituted tolerance, indulgence, kindness, —"pardon," in a word, as he finally characterizes the sum of these various attributes. But the right and duty of the individual to exercise his reasoning faculties to the full must be recognized as paramount before any improvement on the individual's present state of mental slavery is likely to come about.

In the whole movement of contemporary thought on social questions I see a sustained fight against authority in all its forms. The literary or scientific genius, however loudly acclaimed to-day, may be repudiated to-morrow, because criticism assumes the function of judging systematically the works of the greatest living authors upon their merits. And this is a great blessing, since we must fight authority for the sake of fighting authority, which calls for destruction because it is a force that does not consent to being judged by all people. . . . War upon authority as such must be the watchword of every sensible person. There must be an end to blind admiration; there must be no heights incapable of measurement. Man must learn to consider himself as a pair of scales, weighing everything, while, however, freely allowing his own estimates to be weighed by others. The right of judgment should not be a privilege, but everybody ought to feel that society expects an opinion from him.

Although this writer entitles his article "The Psychology of Authority," he does not actually attempt to analyze the essence and composition of authority, but confines himself principally to denying the necessity of its existence. Defining the thing itself, he says:

What is authority? Our elders and our priests and our whole official tribe tell us that authority is—authority. But, I exclaim, what is it? It is a kind of superiority that demands respect. But what do you mean by superiority that demands respect? Whatever is superior stands far beyond any need of enforcing itself. Besides, respect is not one of the things that can be enforced, just as love cannot be enforced. When we say: You must respect such and such a person, we mean: if you do not behave to the advantage of that person, you will be persecuted, punished. When we say: you *shall* pay respect, we deprive respect of any real value it might have. If respect be a sense of compliance, one can feel it only for one whom one loves. Those who cry "teach respect" are tyrants or dolts, because the only thing that can be taught is love. Who loves, respects.

Signor Acclive assails paternal authority with especial vigor, believing its very assertion a confession of weakness, and declaring the most vicious fathers to be the most exacting and at the same time great sticklers for the dominance of *a father's sacred authority*. Of course the father finds this attitude a very convenient one, because he can squander all the money he ought to leave to his children, just as he pleases, in the happy knowledge that when they grow up they will have no right to call him to account for his sinful extravagance. Better a thousand times that a father should take his paramours into his house than that his son should have the presumption to remind him of his duties! So radically wrong are children brought up,—this Italian philosopher goes on to say,—that many a boy will bewail his father's misconduct to his young comrades, and will not dare to go into his father's room and speak to him openly about it, after an intelligent fashion. And he does not dare to do this because of our miserable system of training our children to obey authority unquestioningly, like slaves, instead of developing their sense of justice and their capacity to form judgments. The spirit of tyranny should be kept out of the family circle; instead of authority we want sympathy and kindness; we ought to insist upon obedience less and practice pardon more.

Benevolence, toleration, leniency,—that is to say, pardon,—this author finds sadly lacking wherever one may turn. He greatly deplores the pride of place that animates all public officials, from policeman to premier, and he thinks they would all do well to forget their sensibilities and their dignity and their importance, and to come down to a realization of their purely human selves.

The death of authority would mean the dawn of sympathy. So long as administrators of the State feel the wish to exercise power over other people, so long will the government be composed of men eager for wealth and preferment. So long as they can barricade themselves behind authority and wear this aureole of power, so long will men strive for governmental office, not for the promotion of the public welfare, but in order that they may receive honor and distinction. . . . The day when a cabinet minister's portfolio or the badge of a town counselor

is no longer the symbol of acknowledged prestige, the day when people agree that a government office confers no personal advantages, that day shall we be sure of seeing the government in the hands of men who will be truly helpful to their human brethren.

IS CANADA TO BE THE WORLD'S GRANARY?

IN response to the cry of the children of earth for their daily bread, Nature responds each season with the real miracle of a crop of three and a quarter billions of bushels of one cereal alone. The wheat and its production mean the support of life to so many millions of human beings, as both producers and consumers, that its annual advent from Nature's bosom may be regarded as one of the most stupendous of facts,—though comparatively unnoticed.

In an article in a recent number of the *Westminster* (Toronto), John A. Cormie declares that in Western Canada, the "Prairie Provinces," the whole fabric of human life is built on wheat.

In British Columbia, it is to mines, orchards, rivers, and forests that men turn for means of life. In the East,—from the rocky, lake-strewn region, where Manitoba breaks into Ontario, on to the Atlantic Coast,—it is to a little of everything. But the Prairie Provinces have no visible means of support but wheat. Of course, there are cattle, for the Western farmer is getting wise,—wild oats and thistles and an occasional bad crop are making him wise to the fact that there must be better farming, and cattle are a strong ally. To August 4 of the present year 53,000 head of cattle had been delivered to the Winnipeg yards, and before the end of the year this number will be multiplied by two. In 1906 130,000 head of cattle were shipped to Winnipeg.

Then there are oats,—in 1901, 38,909,654 bushels, increased in 1906 to 87,216,272 bushels,—and barley 20,775,732 bushels in 1906. But 6,000,000 acres of the prairie are sown to wheat, and the yield is estimated at all the way from 100,000,000 bushels to William Whyte's guess last July of 125,000,000 bushels. The Winnipeg grain exchange suggests 107,000,000 bushels, and this will be nearer the mark than either of the other numbers, though a yield equal to the average per acre of the past ten years would amount to 113,000,000 bushels.

That means that there will be in the farmers' granaries this fall wheat worth anywhere from $80,000,000 to $100,000,000. Deducting the 25,000,000 bushels necessary for home consumption, including seed wheat for next spring, there is still left to the man of the prairie an income large enough to make even John D. Rockefeller raise his brows. Wheat is king. Everything else is dwarfed by the pile of dollars annually massed by this one product. As an up-to-date farmer remarked the other day, "It beats all."

Oddly enough, in the face of this tremendous prosperity offering of wheat by the Great Provider, the persons engaged in cultivation and shipment of wheat in that section protest that they have neither time nor inclination to talk of ethereal things with Canadian missionaries. Mr. Cormie remarks:

A Western home missionary was once asked by the convener of the Home Mission Committee of his presbytery what he found to be the chief obstacle to his work in the field in which he was then laboring. His reply was brief, con-



A MOUND OF CANADIAN WHEAT.

(1000 bushels of overflow wheat that could not be bagged or drawn to the elevators.)

tained in the one word, "Wheat." Wheat bulks largely in men's thoughts in the West. The young man referred to,—it is almost certain he had just come from the East,—made the discovery which every man makes before he has been a year in the country, that wheat is king,—that is to say, the whole fabric of life on the Prairie Provinces is built on wheat.

The Canadian Western provinces, it is estimated by Mr. Cormie, will, within a quarter of a century, have a wheat area of 6,000,000 acres. Their average yield for the past ten years was 18.98 bushels per acre,—thirteen times during the past twenty-five years it has been above that,—while the yield of the world last year was 12.7, 50 per cent. less than that of these three provinces.

MOVING-PICTURES AD NAUSEAM.

OF all the novelties in the field of popular amusement in recent years none has made such headway or so completely taken hold of public favor as the moving-picture. It has served to enliven the crowds watching for the returns on the evening of Election Day; stores have been transformed into theaters for its exhibition, and have proved veritable gold-mines for their owners; and the regular vaudeville houses have found it to be so popular an attraction that it has now become, in one form or another, a regular item in their programs. Cinematoscope, kinetoscope, biograph, vitagraph,—the list is continually increasing, and with this multiplication of machines or instruments has come inevitably a corresponding increase of opportunities for the promulgation of good or evil. Mr. C. H. Claudy, writing in *Photo-Era* for October, is of opinion that, as a general rule, the opportunities "are taken up on the bad side."

To be specific, I recently attended three such shows in an evening, all within two squares of each other. In each show the principal attraction was a tragedy! In one the famous James Brothers murdered, robbed, and set fire to their hearts' content; in another an Indian took revenge on a white man for a wrong, in a manner highly satisfactory to the audience; and in the third some ruffians kidnapped a child and were killed in the end. . . . The constant picturing of crime in any form, even if the punishment be shown at the end, is a harmful and degrading thing, especially when a large percentage of the patrons of such theaters is made up of minors, or adults without the education and point of view which will enable them to see these things as they are.

One's regret for such exhibitions is deepened by the reflection that just as much time and effort have been spent in preparing the films for these pictures as would have been in producing others of a more desirable character. The proper backgrounds have had to be selected; the actors in the tragedies have had to be trained; houses, furniture, railroad trains, steamboats, and automobiles have had to be hired,—in fact, everything necessary for the picture. And all the thought, time, and energy have been expended for the portrayal of the "realism of bloodshed, crime, and brutality."

To see an Indian bind his captive and drag him swiftly at the end of a rope, tied to his horse, over rough and rocky ground, is not a pleasant sight, even when one knows that a dummy has been substituted for the real man who was tied. . . . To see a knife plunged deep into the breast of a woman by a jealous lover conveys a picture a thousand times as vivid as reading of the act, and, by the art of the picture-maker, the knife really seems to enter the flesh and the blood to spurt forth, after which the victim writhes, rolls her eyes, and finally dies in agony. Ugh!

In the depiction of scenes of travel and views of foreign lands the moving-picture is undoubtedly serving a useful purpose; but, as Mr. Claudy remarks, the educational effect is largely destroyed by the absurd speed with which the pictures are thrown upon the screen.

Men row in boats, with oars ten and fifteen feet long, and move them back and forth 120 times a minute. . . . Horses gallop down the street at a pace which would put Dan Patch to shame; and make a mile-a-minute automobile look like a hitching-post. . . . Railway trains thunder along at the rate of three miles a minute; and men run the 100-yard dash in five seconds!

Mr. Claudy calls attention to the class of fake pictures which should come under the ban of the censor; particularly "those artistically simulated ones which are so near real life that they can be distinguished only by the expert."

Take a scene from the Japanese war. The picture shows you a column of marching Japs. They halt, get their dinner, go to sleep, get up, march on and act just like the thing real. As they are the real thing, it would be strange if they did not so act. Then you see those same Japs go into battle and, stranger yet, they are shooting right at you, in the audience. Some woman behind me said: "Wasn't that picture-man brave to get out there and get those pic-

tures with all those bullets flying?" He certainly would have been, if the bullets had been there. As a matter of fact, it was a joined film,—the first part real, the second part faked; and the artfulness of it comes from the fact that the general public cannot say when the real leaves off and the fake commences.

There are, of course, many exhibitions in the moving-picture line that give praiseworthy entertainments; but there are very many more that pander to low passions and have nothing but the dollar in sight, and think of nothing but "the film which will draw the biggest crowd without pulling the house into the police-court." If the moving-picture is to be made "an agent for the good it can undoubtedly do, something will have to be done about the class of pictures exhibited." Mr. Claudy says to his readers: "Now it is up to you. When you go to a vaudeville house and see a picture-show concluding the entertainment, write the owner a line. Say what you liked and what you didn't like. . . . What are you going to do?"



A "NEIGHBORHOOD" MOVING-PICTURE THEATER.

CAN THE RUSSIAN SENATE BE REFORMED?

THE Russian Duma may exert an influence over the individual ministries by legislative measures and demands, but on a ministry that is decided to carry on its affairs in spite of "the so-called public opinion" the demand of the Duma may have the opposite effect. As concerns legislative activity, the Duma is entirely paralyzed by the very fact that there exists an institution which serves, under the "renewed régime," as a guaranty for an anti-legal administration. Is it at all worth while enacting laws so long as the ministries have the power to abolish any law by means of "senatorial elucidation"? The editor of the Russian weekly, *Moskovsky Yezenedielnik,* Count E. N. Trubetzkoy, comments on the proposed reforms of the Russian Senate in this vein:

Suppose, says this writer, that the Octobrists and the "Kadets" are successful in having a good statute regarding the universities passed in the Duma, who could pledge us that the Minister of Public Education will not declare it identical with a statute of 1884?

That such a procedure is not out of the ordinary may be seen even from the conception with which the present Minister, A. N. Schwartz, has just returned to the ministry. Judging from the reports in the newspapers, he not only asks regarding the "elucidation" of the decree of August 27; he even dictates to the Senate in which direction the decree should be "elucidated": The Minister of Public Education informs you that, according to his opinion, the decree of August 27 does not contradict the statute approved in 1884, and therefore he, the Minister, thinks that he has the right to adopt all measures for the regulation of the university life in so far as they will not contradict the full power given him by that statute. But, as the boards of professors explain the situation differently and think the interference of the ministry to be against the ordinance of August 27, he asks the Senate for a proper "elucidation."

As there must be some truth in this declaration, which was published by all the newspapers and was not denied by any of the official publications, it therefore means that "the Minister regards the first department of the Senate as a board of attentive executors of the law, ready to take orders from the government officials and to declare, if necessary, black white and white black." Under these conditions the senatorial "elucidation" presents an interesting side in itself, independently of the university question, as an indication of what we can in general expect from the Senate.

In reality, a new order of university management is introduced into the regulations of Au-

gust 27 last: All those statutes that have previously represented the bureaucratic spirit are now exchanged for paragraphs which intrust the management of the university to an autonomous professional college. In spite of all this the Minister of Public Education wants the Senate to declare that the ordinance of August 27 does not contradict the previous statutes! There was a time when the Senate enjoyed general approbation, which it fully deserved. At that time the Senators depended upon the one Minister of Justice, and therefore could show more independence toward all the other ministers. Now, under the "constitution," everything is changed. The Minister of Justice is a member of "the united officialdom," and therefore the Senators are *practically* subject to all the ministers, although *legally* the ministers are subject to the Senate. Thanks to the change in this mutual relation, the Senate has been transformed into a new legislative institution, which the ministers can put in opposition to any law and to any other legislative institution. On the basis of the fundamental laws and the manifesto of October 17, the Senate has already published the law of June 3. Now it is required to "elucidate" the ordinance of August 27; next it will explain away the very foundation of the imperial Duma; and ultimately we shall hear that the manifesto of October 17 does not contradict the previous fundamental laws and that the new fundamental laws have not introduced into our political order any changes at all.

There is no reason, this writer concludes, why the Senate should not turn from a legislative body into a constituent assembly. So far this transformation has not yet taken place, and it is for the Duma to undertake the reform of the Senate. "No other reforms can be of any avail so long as the latter will not become an independent body without the legislative function."

STATE-AIDED OLD-AGE AND DISABILITY INSURANCE IN ITALY.

ONE of the strongest socialistic tendencies, —facts, some would say,—of the present time is the pensioning of old and disabled workingmen wholly from, or with the assistance of, the public purse. In Germany, for example, where this form of insurance is compulsory, government, employer, and employee all pay a separate share, while in Italy a non-compulsory system exists by which the payments made by the laborer are heavily supplemented out of the people's taxes.

The Italian "National Providential Fund for Old and Invalided Workmen" was initiated ten years ago, and in 1900, the first year of its actual operation, 11,000 persons became subscribers, since which date their number has risen to nearly 300,000.

Insignificant as the membership of this society may appear in a country of 35,000,000 population, its very existence is an important social phenomenon,—so much so that publicists of the Apennine Peninsula are giving serious attention to it and discussing its merits in the periodical press. Lately, the *Rivista Internazionale di Scienze Sociali* has taken up the subject, and below are given the main regulations of Italy's "National Providential Fund," as gleaned from an article in that review.

The society asks no admission fee and imposes no fines, the members also being at liberty to subscribe in as many installments as they please, to the minimum amount of one lira. If any one wishes to stop his premiums, he may do so for a month, a year, or several years, without loss of membership or forfeiture of any money put in; even if he should never put in more than his first lira, when he reaches the age of sixty he can draw it out, with the accumulated interest; and there are no restrictions of date as to the resumption of suspended payments. The minimum yearly dues are 6 lire, and arrangements can be made for testamentary disposition of the moneys accumulated to the credit of a subscriber. In return for each 6 lire contributed to the "Fund," or society, the State allows 10 lire besides. Thus, a laborer who has paid in 6 lire per annum for twenty-five years,—the usual period of insurance,—will have had inscribed under his name a total of 400 lire. A special clause permits insurance, under special conditions, for as brief a term as ten years, so that a man may join the society when he is fifty. In the event of a workman becoming invalided,—even though from a cause unconnected with his employment,—he has the right to a pension immediately, provided that he shall have been a contributor to the "Fund" for five years; moreover, the smallest annuity payable is 120 lire. A pension coming from the society cannot be confiscated or in any way attached; that is to say, no part of a pension under 400 lire can be; neither is any such pension subject to the national income tax.

THE ACADEMIC AND THE PRACTICAL.

"ACADEMIC" is a much-abused word, according to President Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, in the New York *Evening Post* for September 26, 1908, reprinted in the *Educational Review* for November.

The Philistine, whether writing for a newspaper or not, uniformly uses the word academic as a term of contempt or derision. He conceives of anything academic as necessarily remote, dreamy, theoretical, unsubstantial; and he opposes it, in style and in fact, to practical, real, attainable. In his mind academies are places of resort for callow and immature youth, and grown men need take no account of them and their doings.

As President Butler points out, facts overwhelmingly contradict all the Philistine's assumptions and conclusions. Neither of the universities in Europe or America "has anything in common with the sort of thing that he calls academic." On the contrary, the universities of Oxford and Berlin and Paris, of Columbia and California and Wisconsin, are intensely practical, and "each one of them touches life, its problems and its most practical interests, at more points and more intimately than any railway or bank or manufacturing corporation can possibly do." The true meaning of the word academic to-day is "the habit of looking at all sides of a matter, underneath it as well as behind it, of examining its history and weighing its consequences." In this sense universities "are, and ought to be, academic to the core." By reason of their special fitness, university officers are in constant demand as government representatives.

In recent years, Cornell lent White; Michigan, Angell; Columbia, Moore; North Carolina, Alexander, and the Catholic University, Egan, to the diplomatic service of the United States. A professor of political economy in the University of Wisconsin is a member of the Railroad Commission of that State, and a similar officer of the University of Michigan is statistician to the Interstate Commerce Commission. No sooner was the recently authorized Monetary Commission organized than its members retained the services of a professor of political economy in Harvard University as expert adviser. Two or three university professors are now doing more than consuls and traveling salesmen have done in a generation to build up mutually advantageous, social, intellectual, and commercial relations with South America. The list might be extended indefinitely, and it would include public service,—national, State, and local,—of almost every type.

It must be apparent that the economic organization of the large universities must necessarily make them admirable training grounds for executive and administrative talent.

In almost any of the chief American universities there will be found a group of men any one of whom might safely be charged with ordinary administrative responsibility of any kind anywhere. At Columbia University, for example, it is quite certain that there are half a dozen men any one of whom, put in full charge of the street-railway system of New York, would have prevented the deplorable situation from which the stockholders and the public are now alike suffering. A little of the academic point of view infused into that enterprise would have made it more practical in its outcome.

Not only are university finances admirably administered, but breaches of trust are so infrequent as to be practically non-existent, and speculative investments are equally rare.

The leading business and professional men of New York who, as trustees, held together for half a century, despite all temptation and the promptings of immediate need, the plot of land that is the main portion of Columbia's endowment, placed the city and the country under lasting obligation to them. They made possible a great university by their foresight and their determination.

Then, again, university funds are as a rule carefully husbanded and wisely spent. Some of the strongest and best men in America are to be found among the trustees. As illustrating the fairness and the wisdom of the financial management, President Butler cites the making of an annual university budget.

In December, each administrative officer or head of department is called upon for a statement in writing of the estimated cost of carrying on properly the work under his charge for the year following. . . . The standing committee of the trustees considers these statements at great length, and selects the recommendations it will urge for adoption. With these reports before them, in print, the trustees vote the budget for the year. This vote is final and is never revised or amended save to meet an unforeseen emergency; and all disbursing officers are held rigidly within the limits of the specific appropriations named in the budget. Applications or recommendations for promotion in rank or change in compensation are considered only when a new budget is in preparation.

The various benefactions to the universities, by gifts and by bequests, are undoubtedly due to confidence in methods such as the foregoing and to a firm faith in the purpose for which universities exist.

Incidentally President Butler states that he considers the United States is suffering from a plethora of universities, so-called, and that "a dozen or fifteen, or, at most, twenty,

properly distributed geographically and thoroughly well endowed, would meet the nation's needs for some time to come."

That the financial problems encountered in university management are "sternly practical," and that those who deal with them are "business men," would be admitted, President Butler thinks, even in a banking-house.

No important university teacher or officer is free from constant contact with matters such as these. . . . Instead of being remote from affairs, as the Philistine thinks, he is plunged in the midst of them. His life is a busy one, where dollars count for less and ideas for more than in other callings. But he is more "practical," rather than less so, on that very account.

INDUSTRIAL ART AND GOOD TASTE.

AN Austrian writer has lately indited some vigorous observations on the subject of the industrial arts which will scarcely prove flattering to those who believe that such arts have been successfully developed. The scope of these arts he declares to be limited, and warns one against expecting too much from them; he insists, moreover, that "the artistic problem of industry is not concerned with art, but with the observance of good taste."

It is a mistaken, not to say pedantic idea, affirms this contributor to the Viennese fortnightly, the *Oesterreichische Rundschau*, to attempt to force artistic things upon the general public, which is really unable to appreciate a work of art that is brought suddenly before it as something new. The common appreciation of art includes but a few conventions that are universally accepted, and these by no means suffice for the right evaluation of an original artistic production. It is the fashion nowadays, however, "to load up this same general public with so-called art, the industry whose business it is to manufacture art *en masse* being on that premise properly styled industrial art." But the notion of this *industrial art* is, of course, a "monstrosity," if one considers that a work of art is an integral, individual performance, the embodiment of an imaginary conception, or vision, which cannot possibly be produced again by its originator or by someone else and have all the same features exactly repeated. So that "the finest galvano-plastic reproduction of Michel Angelo's *Moses* is no more a work of art than the most perfect color reproduction of a Botticelli, however excellent the grade of chromo-photography."

A piece of furniture or a candelabrum made by machines in a factory is as little entitled to be regarded as a work of art as, for instance, one of the new spoons or forks made by Olbrich, with which the market is flooded at the present time. "It is nobody's duty to be artistic," and therefore no obligation exists to give an artistic appearance to clothes, dwellings, automobiles, tramcars, shop-windows; and the modern endeavor to make everything "beautiful," down to the frames of electric bell buttons, has been carried much too far. In fact, the result has been the spread,—since the objects thus manufactured are in very general use,—of a "vulgar pseudo-estheticism," to combat which must be the task of modern culture, whose office is the regulation of taste.

Good taste, to be sure, is itself a convention, which stands and falls at certain times. And because we are scarcely rid of a period of ornamental exaggeration, a strong desire has sprung up for the plain, the simple, the practical, the useful, just as after a period of wide trousers a sudden preference for narrow trousers arises. Although one cannot be compelled to bow down to art, one is subject to the obligations of good taste, which, like politeness, forms a necessary part of life and follows given rules. It is the duty of every one to adopt forms universally acknowledged as right and proper, forms not established by an individual, but expressing themselves as a multifold will. General public opinion does not judge a work of art authoritatively, but it is authoritative as to the demands of good taste, which, of course, like all fashions or conventions, may be obedient to tradition or subject to revolution. Industry, and hence also industrial art,—which lives by and for the general public,—cannot provide an output of works of art, that being beyond its power; it can only provide for the demands of good taste.

If the claims of art and industrial art be kept separate and distinct, there will be nothing to fear:

The altar will then be free of pseudo-estheticism, and there will be room upon it for every pure, genuine work of art that we can find. The mechanic arts, which create purely artistically, will exist so long as men possess the faculties of artistic feeling and execution. Therefore we need have no apprehensions as to the progress of the industry falsely termed industrial art, that caters to common, every day wants. On the contrary, we may hope that this will give rise to human longings for manifestations of individual creative minds. As in the age of railroads, there is more travel than ever, so will the artistic handicrafts be indirectly furthered by "mass manufacture."

THE AUSTRIAN VIEWPOINT IN THE BALKAN PROBLEM.

THAT well-informed and vigorous writer who contributes to the English monthlies and quarterlies under the pseudonym of "Calchas" discusses, in the *Fortnightly Review*, the Austro-Hungarian attitude in the Balkan question. He maintains that Emperor Francis Joseph has practically handed over the direction of the foreign policy of Austria-Hungary to his successor. The Archduke Franz Ferdinand has great ideas; one of these is that



ARCHDUKE FRANCIS FERDINAND, HEIR-APPARENT TO THE THRONE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

> Imperial Austria is to be not only a vital and progressive state within. Without it is to be an independent, active, and expanding power. Franz Ferdinand is now forty-five. No man ever passed through a more thorough education for the duties of coming rulership. He was never so popular as to-day among the great majority of his future subjects. He is believed to have been the most resolute promoter of the universal suffrage which has restored to Austria the sense of life. He is thought to be behind the foreign policy which is looked upon as having at a stroke reasserted Austria's rightful influence in the world. Of the ideas of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, Baron Aehrenthal is the exponent; and those ideas are characterized through and through by the democratic imperialism advocated by every successful political leader in our time. Based upon universal suffrage and racial equality, the Austria-Hungary of the future is to be a federal, not a dual system.
>
> Henceforth there will be a steady attempt from the Austrian side to spread the view that the vision of a "Greater Servia" might be magnificently realized under the Hapsburg crown. The annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina has been most vigorously advocated from the first by the Christian Socialists,—the party with which the Archduke Franz Ferdinand is supposed to be most in sympathy. A member of that party, Prince Alexis Liechtenstein, declared the other day that the great mass of the Serbo-Croats are already under the Hapsburg scepter, since Montenegro and the kingdom of Servia only include a small minority of the race. "The center of gravity around which southern Slav unity will crystallize lies in Austria, not in Servia or Montenegro, since, according to the law of gravitation and mass, the greater attracts the smaller, and not *vice versa*. A whole policy is contained in these words. The heir-apparent and Baron Aehrenthal in their private minds undoubtedly agree with it. Hungary would be held fast on both sides, and the independence movement among the Magyars would be inevitably extinguished. The dual system would be converted into a triple system, leading perhaps to a final reorganization by which Bohemia and Poland would become autonomous kingdoms. To a great scheme of this kind the Archduke Franz Ferdinand is believed to incline.

Austria's Good Work.

Dr. Dillon, who writes (in the *Contemporary Review*) as an eyewitness, declares that Austria has done her work in Bosnia and Herzegovina in a masterly manner. He was amazed, in passing through the occupied provinces, at the number and extent of the material and cultural improvements he found there.

> Life and property were safeguarded as in western Europe; the ways of communication, railroads and carriage-roads, were excellent; even-handed justice was administered cheaply and rapidly; crime was diminishing; the prisons were places of betterment,—reformatories rather than gaols; agricultural methods were improving; industry was being encouraged,—in a word, a complete transformation had been effected in the economic and cultural conditions, while the standard of living had been raised.

Politically, however, Dr. Dillon insists, the people were crushed.

A Defense of Austria by a Hungarian.

Dr. Emil Reich, in the *Nineteenth Century*, states the Austro-Hungarian case. He admits "an element of formal incorrectness"

toward the other powers concerned, but pleads that Austria was compelled to make a choice between two evils,—either to do as she has done or to make war on Servia. For thirty years Austria has exercised in Bosnia and Herzegovina "all and every right and privilege of absolute sovereignty." Dr. Reich lays great stress on the fact that there were no capitulations such as still exist in Cyprus and Egypt. But "the false position and legally fictitious sovereignty of Austria-Hungary" in the two provinces was being made the occasion of constant intrigue and smoldering revolt by the southern Slavs, principally the Servians, "for the purpose of a sort of pan-Servianism." Austria put an end to this dangerous ambiguity in a way and with a dispatch that no international conference could have attained. The introduction of constitutional government into Turkey rendered possible the claim of the two provinces to be represented in the Turkish Parliament. Decisive action was at once imperative. Annexation makes legal repression of revolutionary movements a comparatively easy matter. In Bulgaria, too, "the historic growth of events and facts outstripped the growth of legal doctrines."

THE RIGHTS OF THE MOTHER.

IN reviewing a work recently published in Holland by Prof. August Forel on the question of sex, the Dutch monthly *Vragen van den Dag* for August quotes with apparent approval the author's theory of the "Rights of the Mother."

The superior strength of the man, says the author, and the ancient patriarchal relation led to the custom of giving the name of the father to the family. But this is not only unnatural, but has led to some disagreeable consequences. Though it be true that in the process of birth a human being inherits as much from the father as from the mother, in all other respects the mother stands much closer to him than the father. Those races among whom the mother is the preponderating factor in the family, not merely in the bestowing of the name, but in other respects as well, have therefore given heed to nature.

The fact that the mother is so intimately associated with the child before birth and for years thereafter gives her a claim upon it which does not belong to the father. For this reason, if for no other, as we said before, the children should bear the surname of the mother. Further, it should be the rule that in case of divorce the children should be given to the mother, unless for particularly cogent reasons a court should decide otherwise.

Furthermore, this writer claims, aside from the giving to the family of the name in the maternal line, both the home and its direction should belong to the wife alone, because she only is the true center of the family.

The husband is, speaking in general, and will ever remain, the stronger, and has nothing to fear from the wife's rule within the house. What seems to me demanded in the case I would modestly comprehend under the following points: (1) The giving of the name of the mother to the children; (2) with the exception of cases in which, because of incapacity, abuse, mental disease, and the like, the mother forfeits her maternal rights or is deprived of them, she should be legally granted the sole and supreme guardianship of and authority over the children so long as this may be necessary for them; (3) the wife should be the owner and supreme ruler of the home. The management of the house and all her work done in consequence of her maternal duties should be rewarded accordingly, for the wife has as much right to be indemnified for her labor as the husband has for his own; (4) as long as the marital relations continue, the husband is to have a right to residence, and to the care and service of the wife, in return for the protection afforded by him to the family, for his co-operation in the household, and the education of the children, as well as for his financial contribution toward the support of the establishment; (5) with the exception of his share in the household expenses and those incurred in the education of the children, the earnings and private fortune of the husband are to belong to him alone, and, in like manner, the wife is to have sole claim upon her personal earnings and fortune. In the case of a separation, the individual fortunes should also be separated, each taking what belongs to each. With the exceptions mentioned above, to be judicially determined, the children, in case of separation or divorce, should be given to the mother. Nevertheless, the father will remain obligated, so long as he is able to work, to furnish his share of the expenses for the support and education of his children during their minority.

LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

THE BENEFITS OF PERSONAL INVESTMENT.

THE smash in stocks last year woke Americans up to the opportunities of personally supervised investment. It was revealed to some and emphasized to the rest that money can be treated scientifically, and ought to be. The result is hundreds of thousands of new names on the lists of stockholders in prosperous corporations, and on the customers' ledgers of investment banking-houses.

All this has a meaning to the nation far beyond the personal profit of individuals. To investigate the safety of one's money, the character of the men who are using it, and the qualities of banks and stocks and bonds and notes and combinations thereof best suited to one's peculiar problem, makes one not only a wealthier, but a better, citizen.

Comment on the wide influence of personal finance comes from many sources. There is the financial press, such as the *Wall Street Journal* and the *New York Times* "Weekly Financial Supplement." There are utterances also from representatives of the public like Chairman Knapp, of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and from bankers not primarily interested in securities, as for instance, President John J. Mitchell, of the Illinois Trust & Savings Bank. Particularly significant are the reflections of a steady public demand, such as the growing investment departments sustained by monthly and weekly magazines of large circulation, and the official bulletins of the Y. M. C. A.

The association's "West Side Branch," in New York City, explains the need for its lecture course in banking and investments:

> The impression is widespread that the investor class is limited to a few thousand millionaires and a few hundred thousand rich people. As a matter of fact, it is chiefly made up of several millions of people of moderate means, whose investment holdings, according to careful estimates, range in amount from $100 to $10,000 each. But this does not indicate the great percentage of our population which is affected by the practical economic question of the proper investment of money; others, besides the actual owners of the securities, are usually directly dependent on the income from the investments.
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> The question of investing has come to be one of direct economic importance to several millions of men and women in America, and, indirectly, to practically the entire population of the country.

NEW OWNERS OF THE CORPORATIONS.

Never has the number of holders of American securities been so great. Owners of railroad stocks alone, as estimated by the *New York Times,* have increased from 350,000 to 500,000 in the last four years. A large portion of this increase has been within the last year. Some 2,000,000 investors are the direct partners of the captains of industry, and the savings of some 20,000,000 workers altogether are invested in corporate enterprise by way of trustees, banks, hospitals, colleges, insurance companies, and other financial institutions.

The causes for the extraordinary increase in the buying of "odd lots" (of less than 100 shares of stock apiece) is sketched by the *Wall Street Journal:*

> The odd-lot investor, throughout the year and over the country in general, has laid away a large amount of resources, and this is one of the ways in which the number of investment units has been greatly extended. This may account for the notable increase in the number of stockholders in some corporations. The sound and prosperous conditions of agricultural districts have provided some of the means for this general investing, the fall of security prices has encouraged it, and industrial and commercial depression has favored it by closing temporarily other avenues of investment.

The withdrawing of cash after last year's panic and its investment in standard stocks and bonds is approved by President John J. Mitchell, of the Illinois Trust & Savings Bank. "To a considerable degree it is beneficial," he writes:

> We have thousands of depositors whose savings range from $5000 to $10,000 each. They are what people generally term the middle classes. They read and know something about investments. Savings logically go into securities. It is better so. The more people there are with money invested the sounder is the general financial situation and the less chance is there for Socialism to spread.

DIRECT INVESTMENT HIGHLY DESIRABLE.

From now on "more money will be directly invested and less sent away from home,

through the banks, to be loaned in the more or less speculative centers," writes Chairman Knapp, of the Interstate Commerce Commission.

This seems to be a highly desirable consummation. It will promote a wider knowledge of and interest in the immense mass of securities which represent a great proportion of the wealth of the nation. It will lessen the volume of those securities held in a speculative way; will reduce the possibility and also the danger of manipulation of the market with disastrous results.

Thus the man who deposits his $500 or $5000 in a country bank, which in turn deposits it in New York, becomes in fact an investor in the securities in which New York deals. But he insists on the security of the bank's credit standing between him and the investment. That is, in a general way, because the country at large is not sufficiently familiar with this kind of investment, and also because many people with money in banks do not have confidence enough in this class of investments to care to use their own judgment in buying.

It seems altogether likely that investments in this kind of securities will soon become popular; that the sections of country where bankers and investors have not in the past sought after this class of property will more and more want it.

To protect the investing public, and also to help well-conducted corporations to raise needed money, a governmental system of public information would certainly be helpful. Mr. Knapp believes that legislation along this line is not far from enactment.

Last year many law-making bodies were trying to bend big corporations to the public will,—in some cases with danger of breaking them. At this date, however, there are many signs that whatever regulation takes place will be in the investor's behalf.

One feature is the rise of protective societies, such as the American Railroad Employees and Investors' Association. Its executive committee is composed of four railroad presidents and the heads of four of the railway brotherhoods, one of whom is P. H. Morrissey, its secretary. Its object is "to secure a fair return alike to capital and labor invested in American railroads." This association is not to take part in controversies between railroad and employees and officials, but to keep a sharp eye on legislation which might work unjustly to the railroad investor and laborer.

Perhaps the most striking evidence that the American man and woman are more interested than ever in problems of personal investment is given by several of the standard magazines. They find a steady response from their readers to the regular investment news printed in their columns.

This "wholesome investment education," writes H. D. Robbins in *Trust Companies*, "has already had a far reaching effect,—benefiting all concerned."

A MONEY-SAVING FACT.

EVERY year, in this country, huge fortunes in the aggregate are swindled away from hard-working folk by means of irresponsible promotions, mining and miscellaneous. These sad losses would stop if one simple fact were posted in every home.

For instance, the office of a certain mining promotion company in New York City was raided three weeks ago. Inspectors of the Post Office Department carried away several gunnysacksful of the hundreds of checks and thousands of letters sent in from credulous "investors." Chief Inspector W. S. Meyer called the scheme "the most stupendous mining fraud ever operated in America." The total amount taken in by the promoters of this one concern alone reach into the millions.

Not long ago, when circulars of the same company were referred to the publishers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS by several readers, the reply was promptly sent that the stock was not an investment in any sense of the word. The advertisements condemned themselves, as they would have done to any common-sense man or woman, no matter how unacquainted with finance, who had given attention to this one fact:

"A review of all the propositions promoted by sensational advertising during the last ten years proves *there are not three today upon a healthy dividend paying basis.*"

AN EASILY DETECTED TRICK.

The above is the statement of Henry B. Clifford, a mining engineer of long and varied experience. In the *Ticker Magazine*, he goes on to expose the simple and easily recognized trick that swindlers use to make an empty proposition appear sound, without becoming liable for fraud:

There is generally but little fact in these articles. A misrepresented fact is punishable and for that reason these articles say seldom

anything positive like: "One hundred tons of ore were shipped to the smelter last week." The reader, once posted, can mark these self-prepared letters at a glance; there is seldom any statement of fact.

These word-artists boast of their ability to promise large profits without really saying anything upon which a grand jury could indict. Of late years, the more successful writers of mining literature deal in what Rufus Choate called "glittering generalities," and constantly keep in the minds of the readers the fact that some man has acquired great wealth in mining investments, and that the shares offered at a few cents have an equal chance of success.

The mail of a financial editor brings every now and then a pitiful letter from some "investor" in such stock. He clings to the extravagant advertisement that led him to buy it; he points to the "guaranty," "assurances," "absolute certainty," "solemn promises," of 25 per cent. or 50 per cent. or 75 per cent. dividends, and asks if he cannot at least get his money back, and how to go to law for it.

This article is written in the hope that such people will look in the future for "facts," because their money can rarely be recovered on promises alone.

LOOKING OVER A BOND "BARGAIN."

"I CAN get 5½ per cent. on my money by putting it into the Colorado & Southern refunding and extension 4½ per cent. bonds. Don't you think they are a bargain?"

Financial editors are finding their mail full of such questions. Bonds of the general type of the C. & S. 4½s are just now in the public eye; the older, better known bonds (especially the "gilt edged" kind that is legal for trustees in savings banks) have been bought and bought and bought by investors all summer, until now most of the highest grade are so high that the purchaser cannot get more than 4 per cent. on his money.

The Colorado & Southern 4½s are mentioned in many of these inquiries. They seem to have aroused interest far outside the circle of regular bond buyers. There are two reasons. The railroad is highly prosperous. It is about the only one in the country reporting an increase of earnings right through the late depression. And the bonds have the quite unusual feature of coming in "pieces" as low as $100 face value, besides the customary $1000, $5000, and $10,000.

Thus with the market price at about 88, the owner of only $88 may become a bondholder, with two coupons to be cashed for $4.50 a year. This amounts to about 5½ per cent. on the money put in.

Are the bonds a "bargain"? Remarks on their value, and bond values in general, have been appearing in the *Wall Street Summary*, the *Wall Street Journal*, the *Railroad Age Gazette*, and *Moody's Magazine*. The matter looks pretty technical at first glance.

But the way some very successful dealers and investors in bonds would make use of the information is very simple. They avoid strings of statistics and financial lingo as they would the devil. To them, little two-numeral percentages, compared for different years and items, are the things that talk. Anybody who has ever lent or borrowed or earned money on any scale can follow their reasoning. It is something like this:

HOW THE BOND EXPERT'S MIND WORKS.

"Suppose I buy some of the Colorado & Southern 4½s. Then I and all the other holders of the issue are equally interested on three of its sides: legal, financial, and personal.

"First, what *control* have we got over this road?" (The answer will show what dealers call the "class" of the bond, its "safety as to principal," compared with other bonds of the same class.)

"Second, what is the road's *extra income* after cashing our coupons and settling all the other fixed charges for the year?" (The simple figure expressing this answer will be compared with the similar figures for other railroads of the same kind and in the same territory, and thus lead to a judgment on the bond's "safety as to interest.")

"Third, what kind of *men* are behind this road, what are their records for getting business at a low cost in the past, and what opportunities lie before them?" (The answer here will supply the "human equation" of the other two.)

A FIVE MINUTES' CONCLUSION.

In about five minutes the investigator can reach some conclusion as to the standing of the bonds, provisional, of course, on careful verification of figures and statements. To check them up the prospective buyer, if he

is a banker, simply calls for a member of his "statistical department." Here are available the original sworn reports the railroad puts out, copies of the bond mortgage as furnished to the trustee, and records of the Interstate Commerce Commission and of the railroad commissioners of the various States through which the road passes; besides such elaborate tomes as the White & Kemble "Bond Atlas," and the standard manuals.

Or a private investor can take advantage of the same first hand records by visiting or writing to any investment banker established on a large scale. Experienced bankers are only too glad to deal with investors who have done some self-informing.

A sketch follows of the way such "provisional conclusions" can be reached quickly. It might have been directed to any other bond in the public eye, just as well as to the C. & S.'s. Thus it may answer people who have been inquiring on several points,—what the simple lines of a bond investigation should be; and what common terms like "basis," "refunding," "maintenance," really mean.

MIDDLE CLASS.

First, the *control* that the bonds give their holder would be described as "middle class." The Colorado & Southern system has about 2000 miles of track. On the 1000 miles of the main line, and more than 500 miles of miscellaneous branch lines, the 4½s have a claim second to that of $31,000,000 other bonds. On about 500 miles of new, well-built track, including the important "extension" to the Gulf, after which they are named, the 4½s have a first claim. As the word "refunding" implies, a certain number of them are to be exchanged for the old bonds of the railroad as soon as the latter fall due. Thus they will eventually be the only mortgage on the road.

Now the worth of the railroad as a going concern can be estimated in excess of the value of all bonds now sold or likely to be. In testimony, thereto, the company points to the value put on its stock. The legal claim of stockholders comes after all bondholders, of course. It is therefore an argument for the total $55,000,000 of bonds (face value) that the three kinds of stock outstanding are worth, at present selling prices, more than $25,000,000 more.

EXTRA INCOME SATISFACTORY.

To answer the second question,—to get a figure showing the road's extra income,—is done in a moment. The figure is 47 per cent. This means that during the year ending June 30, 1908, out of every $100 the company earned, only $53 were needed to pay interest coupons, taxes, rentals, installments on engines and cars,—"fixed charges," as the railroad people call them,—leaving $47 over as surplus income.

What does this figure mean? "Generally speaking," says the November *Moody's Magazine,* "for Eastern properties, the margin of safety (per cent. of total net income beyond all fixed charges) should exceed 25 per cent.; on most Western and Southern properties it should at least equal 40 per cent. to make the securities really high grade."

Then an extra income of 47 per cent. would seem ample for safety of interest. But *Moody's* is very emphatic on the necessity of scrutinizing this figure over a period of five or ten years.

It is important to know what this surplus was for the past year, of course, but it is far more necessary to know what these figures have been for a series of years, how they have averaged and whether the trend has been up or down. An average may easily be abnormally raised by a year or two of extraordinary earnings, just as it may be unduly depressed by a period of poorer results.

Conservative investors who applied this test five years ago, kept away from the issues of the Rock Island, the Seaboard, the Wheeling, and the 'Frisco; they bought the issues of the Atchison, the Northern Pacific, the Norfolk & Western, the Reading, and the Union Pacific.

This general rule was outlined by *Moody's* without reference to any particular bond. At any investment bankers, however, one can find a copy of *Poor's* or *Moody's Manual,* and in it the record from which the following table can easily be constructed:

Year.	Extra income. Per cent.	Fixed charges.	Net income.
1902.....	40	$968,783	$1,595,541
1903.....	33	1,030,430	1,527,383
1904.....	30	1,058,195	1,496,136
1905.....	27	1,888,007	2,591,532
1906.....	46	2,142,296	3,908,508
1907.....	49	2,228,795	4,320,653
1908.....	47	2,463,058	4,634,961

Nearly 39 average.

The story appears at a glance down the bold-face column. These percentages are given in round numbers, but they serve to show that extra income never sank below 25 per cent., even during the hard times of 1903-'05; that the average since 1902, when the present management got the road, has been nearly 39 per cent.; and that for each of the three years past, the safety figure of 40 per cent. has been exceeded.

THE HUMAN EQUATION.

Another look at the same figures gives an eloquent answer to the third question: What kind of men are running this road? For it shows that between 1905 and 1908 they more than *doubled* the yearly running debt of the company,—but more than *tripled* its yearly earnings. This spells the ability to make borrowed money pay its way, in a hurry.

Here is the vital point in the case. About $37,000,000 of the bonds may come on the market during the next thirteen years, and after that, when the "refunding" begins, some $38,000,000 more. The latter, of course, may add little or nothing to yearly interest payments; they simply take the place of old bonds.

Who are these men? The Colorado & Southern is one of the few railroads of its size and strategic command not understood to be controlled by any of the half-dozen great railroad groups. Its representative spirit is Edwin Hawley, an aggressive and independent traffic manager under the late Collis P. Huntington, and afterwards under E. H. Harriman. His friends say that his greatest traffic record of all is his latest on the Colorado & Southern. He is growing to be a directing factor in several large railway enterprises. The *Wall Street Journal* reports him "perhaps the least talked about of men who do things on a large scale in the financial community."

On the executive committee of the road are Gen. Grenville Dodge, the railroad veteran, who constructed the Union Pacific; B. F. Yoakum, the able and active operating head of the Rock Island Company, and among other names that stand for good management is that of President Frank Trumbull.

"GOOD PROVIDERS."

Another part of the "human" question is: Has the management kept the road up-to-date? Has the "maintenance" of engines, cars, rails, ties, bridges, stations, and so forth, been all that is needed to fit the road for handling bigger future loads? Or has it been "skinned" to make a better showing of earnings?

After comparing the C. & S.'s latest maintenance figures with former ones, the *Railroad Age Gazette* decides that in 1908 "the property was kept up by liberal expenditures. Improvements were carried on without interruption." The Railroad Commission of Texas,—one of the most exacting in the country,—reports on the "Fort Worth and Denver City," which operates 450 miles of Colorado & Southern main lines, as follows:

> This company appears to be complying in every respect with the orders of the Commission, requiring improvements in roadbed and service, and it bids fair within a very short time to be one of the best and most substantially built and equipped railroads in the State. The management deserves to be complimented very highly.

FUTURE OPPORTUNITIES.

Finally, what openings for future traffic exist as a result of the managers' aggressiveness? The *Wall Street Summary* briefly explains:

> In studying a map of the Colorado & Southern Railway one is impressed with the system's amplitude. Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas are traversed,—four veritable empires,—each exceeding in area and resources certain foreign countries. Cotton and corn, coal and cattle, together with ores, lumber, and merchandise, are among the system's diversified traffic. The company's geographical position is strategic. Colorado & Southern is a short line between Denver and Galveston. From the Gulf of Mexico, *via* Orin Junction on the Union Pacific, a route is formed to the Northwest. These are the general factors which give value to Colorado & Southern 4½s.

A COMPARISON.

After sizing up a bond's "class," and the earnings and the men behind it, the expert next looks for comparisons with others like it. The *Wall Street Journal* of October 1 lined up the Colorado & Southern 4½s with three other bonds. On most of the test points, the C. & S.'s. showed some advantage. The *Journal*, however, found that they were selling lower in proportion than the others. This appears in the following table, in which the prices, however, have been brought up to date of writing:

	Per cent.
C., C., C. & St. L. general 4s, to yield	4.10
C. & O. general 4½s, to yield	4.40
Southern Railway consolidated 5s, to yield	4.60
Colorado & Southern refunding 4½s	5.35

Why do these bonds sell at a price apparently so low? The *Wall Street Journal* declares that "all of the elements which enter into a consideration of the investment merits of a railroad bond point to a very reasonable assurance as to the safety of principal and interest"; and it offers as explanation "the fact that the bonds have not as yet graduated into the class of strictly gilt-edge securities, and that the latter class of bonds has in general been the only one to show any marked improvement in market position."

SOME BOOKS OF THE HOLIDAY SEASON

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

STUDIES OF CHRIST.

While the season's list of religious books is marked by the unusual number of works of theological interpretation and religious inspirational appeal, there is noticeable an increasing number of analytical studies of the man Jesus Christ in his human aspects and relationships. Three of these volumes which are noteworthy for their firm, courageous, and dispassionate, but delicate and reverential, handling are: "The Trial of Jesus from a Lawyer's Standpoint," in two volumes, by Walter M. Chandler (New York: The Empire Publishing Company); "Jesus of Nazareth," by S. C. Bradley (Boston: Sherman, French), and "The Character of Jesus," by Dr. Charles Edward Jefferson (New York: Crowell).



Photograph by Pirie MacDonald.

WALTER M. CHANDLER.

(Author of "The Trial of Jesus from a Lawyer's Standpoint.")

Mr. Chandler, who is a member of the New York bar and known for his cogent reasoning and oratorical ability, has endeavored in these two volumes,—one devoted to the Hebrew trial and the other to the Roman trial,—to set forth, strictly from a lawyer's standpoint, "the legal rights of the *man* Jesus at the bar of *human* justice under Jewish and Roman laws." It is quite clear and beyond dispute, says Mr. Chandler in his preface, that "in dealing with the historical facts and circumstances of the trial and crucifixion of Jesus we cannot remotely employ the method of proof which is based upon religious consciousness and experience. . . . We have been compelled to resort to the legal and historical method of proof."

Taking up the Hebrew trial before the great Sanhedrin, he first considers the "record of fact," submitting the authenticity of the gospel narratives "to the rigorous tests of rules of evidence laid down by Greenleaf and by Starkie." He next considers Hebrew criminal jurisprudence based upon the Mosaic code and upon the Talmud, and discusses the competency of the Sanhedrin to conduct the trial. The next step is to consider the legal aspects of the trial, combining the elements of law and fact in the form of a regular legal brief which discusses "points" and "errors." The second volume assumes the record of fact brought out at the first trial, and discusses the Hebrew trial as it came before Pilate and Herod simply in the light of the general Roman procedure. The second volume is completed by a consideration of "Græco-Roman Paganism at the Time of Christ," a series of short biographical sketches of forty members of the great Sanhedrin which tried Jesus, and the "Apocryphal Acts of Pilate."

As to the authenticity of the gospels, which contain the only accounts accessible of the trial and execution of the man Jesus, Mr. Chandler says: "No other literature bears historic scrutiny so well as the New Testament biographies." Therefore, he continues, we are led to declare that "if the gospel historians be not worthy of belief we are without foundation for rational faith in the secular annals of the human race." Assuming, therefore, that the gospel histories "would be admitted into a modern court of law in a modern judicial proceeding," Mr. Chandler proceeds to consider in detail the code of Hebrew criminal procedure, giving a detailed and highly interesting analysis of the famous Talmud. Considering, as he does, under this category the crimes and punishments, the courts and judges, the witnesses and evidence, and the modes of trial and execution in capital cases, Mr. Chandler says: "The entire administration of Hebrew criminal law was marked by lofty conception of right and wrong, and was permeated by a noble sentiment of justice and humanity." Assuming that the great Sanhedrin existed at the time of Christ, and that according to the weight of authority Jesus was tried before this body, the author passes upon the authority of the court, which he finally declares to be adequate in this instance, since the charges against Him were sedition and blasphemy,

"both of which crimes came within the cognizance of the supreme tribunal of the Jews." An analysis of the two distinct charges, that of sedition and blasphemy, leads Mr. Chandler,—holding strictly as he does to the legal procedure as laid down in the Mosaic and Talmudic codes,—to conclude that: "The pages of human history present no stronger case of judicial murder than the trial and crucifixion of Jesus of Nazareth, for the simple reason that all forms of law were outraged and trampled under foot in the proceedings instituted against Him. The errors were so numerous and the proceedings so flagrant that many have doubted the existence of a trial." In detail: the arrest of Jesus was illegal; His private examination before Annas or Caiaphas was illegal; His indictment was illegal in form; the proceedings of the Sanhedrin against Him were illegal, because they were conducted at night before the offering of the sacrifice and on a day preceding the Jewish Sabbath; the trial was illegal because it was concluded within one day; the sentence of condemnation was illegal because it was founded upon the uncorroborated confession of Christ Himself, because it was pronounced in a place forbidden by law, because the members of the great Sanhedrin were legally disqualified to try the accused, and because the "merits of the defense" were not considered.

In the second volume Mr. Chandler considers: what charge was made against Jesus before Pilate, what Roman law was applicable to these charges, and did Pilate apply these laws either in letter or in spirit. He proceeds to consider what would have been the procedure in a perfectly regular Roman trial under the circumstances, and then points out in what respect this specific trial differs. Pilate, he says, did not merely review a sentence which had been passed by the Sanhedrin after a regular trial, but he conducted an entirely new trial upon the charge of treason against Cæsar, a charge which came within his proper jurisdiction. Pilate swept aside the charges of sedition and blasphemy and took cognizance of the one most awful crime known to Roman law, high treason against Cæsar, particularly in Palestine, always a hotbed of insurrection and sedition against Rome's power. This writer believes that despite the fact that Jesus was not a Roman citizen, the due forms of Roman law were observed at His trial. The result, however, was "judicial murder," because the judge, after having acquitted Jesus ("I find in Him no fault at all"), delivered Him to be crucified.

Very properly, says Mr. Bradley in his "Jesus of Nazareth, A Life," there is a theology of Jesus and also a psychology of Him. It is perhaps most important now that we should consider Him as a man. With this in view the author has permitted his imagination, co-ordinated by his psychological knowledge and biographical skill, to pen a word picture of the man Christ in His human life. A vivid chapter upon the youth of Jesus and John opens the volume.

In his book, "The Character of Jesus," Dr. Jefferson takes much the same ground as the author just referred to. He leaves Christ's character to be its own witness, and permits the reader to draw his own deductions from the picture of Jesus as He must have been seen by His friends and enemies.



THE VACHE HATHOR OF DENDERAH,—THE SACRED COW OF EGYPT.

Illustration (reduced) from "Egypt and Its Monuments."

ARCHEOLOGY, DESCRIPTION, TRAVEL.

It would perhaps be impossible to find two other persons as competent to prepare a fascinating, artistic study of Egypt which should be at the same time a literary tribute and guide-book of the highest order as Robert Hichens and Jules Guérin. In "Egypt and Its Monuments" (Century) these literary and pictorial artists have combined to produce a most stimulating and beautiful picture in art and color of the mysterious charm inseparable from the land of the Sphinx and the Pyramids. For the production of this book artist and writer made special trips to Egypt, and those who know anything of that wonderful country respond quickly to the mystery, immensity, and color impressions of Egypt's vast monuments of the past, as they have imaged them. The chapter on Denderah, in which the Goddess Hathor is considered, is one of the finest in the volume.

In the series of delightful essays entitled "Out of Doors in the Holy Land" (Scribners), Dr. Henry van Dyke gives his "impressions of travel in body and spirit," emphasizing especially his firm conviction that Christianity is an out-of-doors religion. The publishers have beautified the volume by a dozen reproductions in color of striking photographs.

The splendid work being done by the Italian Government in excavating the site of the two buried cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum, while admittedly of value and interest to artists and antiquarians, is not appreciated in all its bearings by the world at large. Dr. Charles Waldstein, in the monumental work on "Herculaneum: Past, Present, and Future" (Macmillan), in a few well-chosen sentences, brings



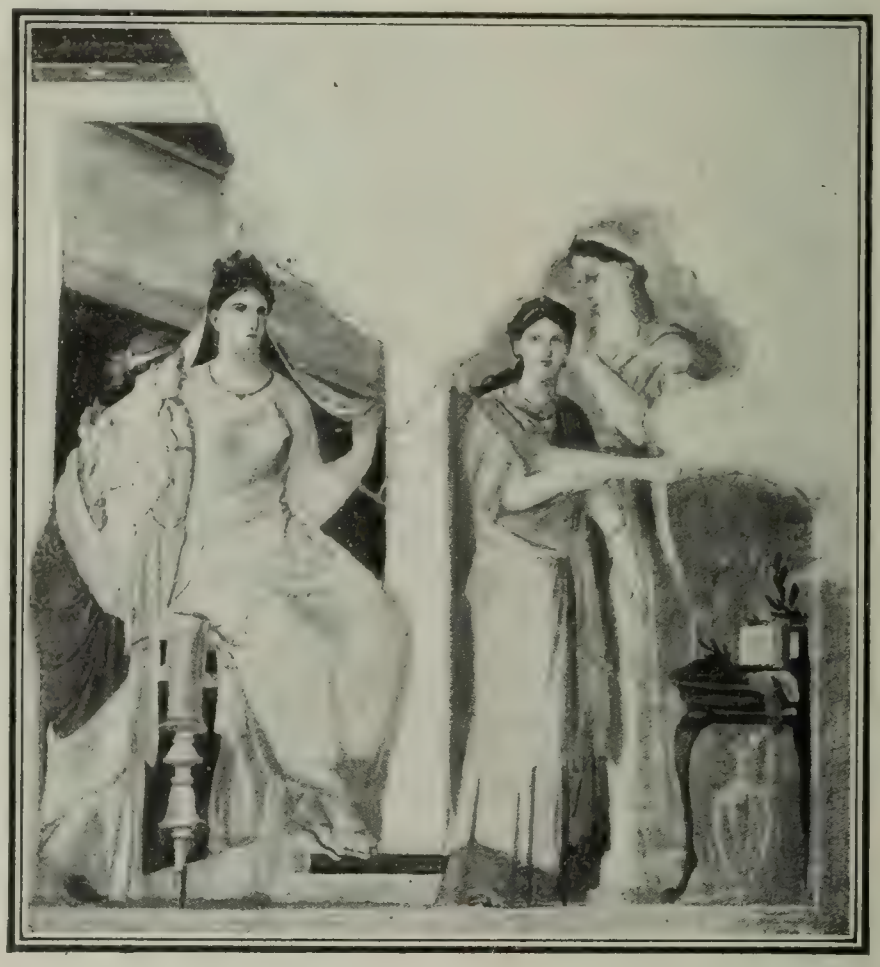
BRONZE TRIPOD DUG UP AT HERCULANEUM.

Illustration (reduced) from "Herculaneum: Past, Present, and Future."

Mr. Leonard Shoobridge, is a study of the investigation of the two buried cities with particular reference to Herculaneum, because "all authorities concerned with classical antiquity are agreed that of all ancient sites, without any exception, Herculaneum promises to yield the richest treasure to the excavator." It was not as commercially important a town as Pompeii, but it was a residential town, the home of the wealthy art lover. And, moreover, it was overwhelmed so quickly that there was no time to remove the statues and manuscripts. Dr. Waldstein is, it will be remembered, professor of the fine arts in the University of Cambridge, and was formerly director of the American School of Archeology at Athens. The volume under consideration contains a series of valuable appendices, including a list of principal art objects already discovered at Herculaneum and quotations from ancient authors, with translations, referring to the destruction of Pompeii and Herculaneum by the eruption of Vesuvius in 79 A. D.

A good general description, in a running, happy-go-lucky way, of Ireland as it is at the present time, with a lot of good pictures, comes to us from the pen of Plummer F. Jones and the press of Moffat, Yard. Mr. Jones not only knows Ireland, but loves it, and writes with enthusiasm and vivacity. A number of the chapters in the book have already appeared as articles in magazines, the one on "Rural Ireland As It Is To-Day" being printed in our pages in November, 1905.

home to every "thoughtful and honest man who can look further and rise higher than his own immediate hearthstone" the high importance of investigating the ruins of these ancient cities and bringing to light their treasures of art. Referring to the fact that the work is to be carried on by the Italian Government with the assistance of an international commission, Dr. Waldstein points out that it is working together "on the very soil on which our common civilization rests to restore the living testimonies of culture which belong to us all." Different as the peoples of the earth may be in language, religion, and material interests, we all have, says this writer, "the same ideas of the value of art and science, the same ideals as to the pursuit of the beautiful and the true, and these have come to us from Hellas to a great extent as they have passed through Rome or the Italian land." This finely illustrated volume of more than 300 pages, which was prepared by Dr. Waldstein, assisted by



TOILET SCENE FROM A WALL PAINTING IN HERCULANEUM.

Illustration (reduced) from "Herculaneum: Past, Present, and Future."



A PEASANT GIRL OF GALWAY.

Illustration (reduced) from "The Shamrock Land," by Plummer F. Jones.

Of course, there is the usual book on the French capital. This time it is entitled "Pictures of Paris and Some Parisians" (Macmillan), by John N. Raphael, containing forty-five illustrations from drawings by Frank Reynolds. The pictures of real Paris life and characters are unusually good.

Alfred T. Story's "American Shrines in England" (Macmillan) makes known to American readers many hitherto neglected facts regarding the English homes of the families that later had distinguished careers on this side of the water. Thus the homes of the Washingtons, the Franklins, the Penns, and the founders of Yale and Harvard, with those of other heroes of American colonization, are described.



THE MILITARY ARM OF FRANCE.

Illustration (reduced) from "Pictures of Paris and Some Parisians."

The holiday season, as usual, sees the publication of a number of illustrated books of travel and description. A comparatively new form of this kind of book is the literary description accompanied by colored illustrations from paintings prepared particularly for the volume in question. A. & C. Black, of London, issue a number of these volumes, which are imported by the Macmillans. Among others which these two publishing houses have brought to America this season are: "The Flowers and Gardens of Japan," described by Florence du Cane and painted by Ella du Cane, including fifty full-page colored illustrations with appropriate descriptions; "The Isle of Wight," described by A. R. Hope Moncrieff and painted by A. Heaton Cooper, with twenty-four full-page colored illustrations and ten chapters about "the Isle" as the British know it; "New Zealand," described by W. P. Reeves and painted by F. and W. Wright, with seventy-five colored illustrations and two maps, and eight chapters about Britain's island possession in the South Seas; and "Geneva," described by Francis Gribble and painted by J. Hardwicke Lewis and May Hardwicke Lewis, with twenty full-page colored illustrations and twenty-four chapters about the old city of Calvin and Rousseau.

Two volumes of the "Old World Travel Series" (London: Dent; New York: Macmillan),



ANCESTRAL HOME OF THE WASHINGTON FAMILY IN ENGLAND.

(From "American Shrines in England.")

treat of northern Italy. "Along the Rivieras of France and Italy," written and illustrated in color and line by Gordon Home, contains twenty-five full-page colored illustrations from paintings and twenty-five black and white illustrations with descriptive text and maps. "Venetia and Northern Italy," being the story of Lombardi and Venice, by Cecil Hedlam, illustrated by Gordon Home, contains twenty-five full-page colored illustrations, seventeen pictures in black and white, and twenty-two descriptive chapters.

Macmillan also issue "Home Life in Italy," by Lina Duff Gordon, with thirteen illustrations in tint by Aubrey Waterfield, and other illustrations from photographs.

Having been convinced for many years that "wherever salt water meets land there must be something worth seeing, recording, and depicting," Mr. Clive Holland wrote "From the North Foreland to Penzance" (London: Chatto & Windis; New York: Duffield), which has been illustrated with thirty full-page illustrations in color from paintings by Maurice Randall.

Two other books with illustrations in tone and



From *Collier's Weekly.*

IN THE STRAITS OF MAGELLAN.

Frontispiece (reduced) of "With the Battle Fleet."

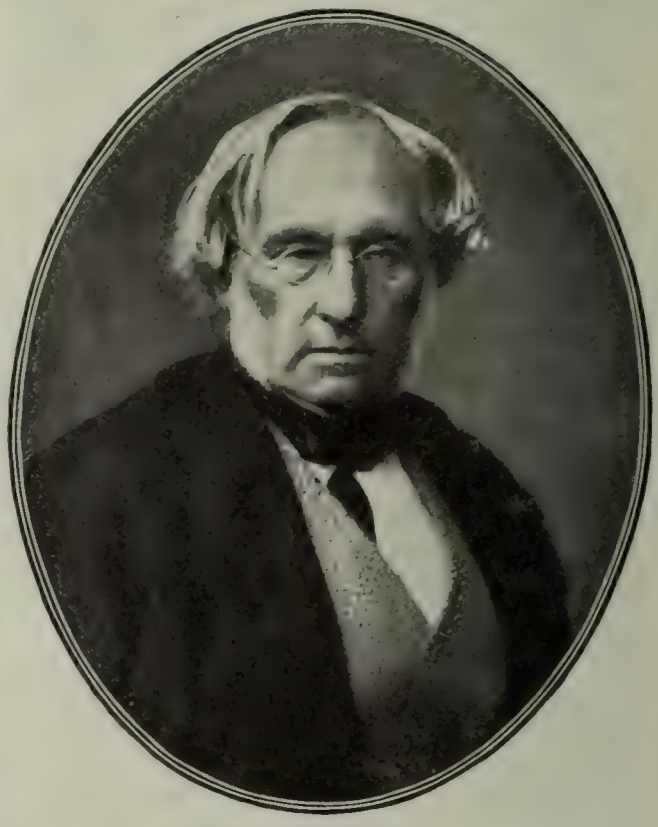
color about England and picturesque English by-paths are: "Untrodden English Ways" (Little, Brown), by Henry C. Shelley, in which the author betrays a particular fondness for Devon and Cornwall; and "A Book About Yorkshire,"—the "best shire of England," by J. S. Fletcher (London: Methuen; New York: McClure), with thirty-two illustrations, sixteen of them in color by Wal Paget and Frank Southgate.

Never ending is the charm that rural and historic France has for the literary spirits of all nations. Two fascinating volumes of description on the charm of that France which is not Paris, written with a literary touch that makes them stand out from the great mass of books of European travel and description, are Mary King Waddington's "Chateau and Country Life in France" (Scribners), and Mrs. Edith Wharton's "A Motor Flight Through France" (Scribners). Both volumes are illustrated,—Madame Waddington's from sketches and drawings, and Mrs. Wharton's largely from photographs. The same charm that distinguished Madame Waddington's other books, "The Letters of a Diplomat's Wife" and "The Italian Letters of a Diplomat's Wife," characterize this book. A great deal of her observations were made during nearly thirty years of country life in France, particularly in Normandy. Mrs. Wharton's text is found in her introductory sentence: "The motor car has restored the romance of travel." Her keenness of observation and delicate descriptive style never fail her.

In "Sun and Shadow in Spain" (Little, Brown), Maud Howe has given us an entertaining description of life among the Spanish people, with anecdotes of travel and many illustrations, some of them in tint.

Each season brings us several volumes of romantic, poetic description of travel in the Far East. From Crowell we have "The Firefly's Lovers and Other Tales of Old Japan," by William Elliot Griffis; from Jennings & Graham, "In Togo's Country," illustrated from photographs, by Henry B. Schwartz; while the Grafton Press brings out "Ah, Moy, the Story of a Chinese Girl," by Low Wheat, illustrated by Mary Curran; and Dutton publishes the familiarly told little volume about "Things Seen in Japan," by J. R. Chitty, illustrated from photographs.

One of the best recent examples of intelligent and graphic narrative and description in the form of newspaper correspondence was the series of letters sent to the New York *Sun* by Franklin Matthews during the cruise of the American battleship fleet from December, 1907, to May, 1908. His letters are now reprinted in a volume entitled "With the Battle Fleet" (New York: B. W. Huebsch), with illustrations by Henry Reuterdahl, the well-known naval artist. Mr. Matthews' letters constitute practically a chronological story of the cruise. It is stated that every word of them was passed upon by duly appointed naval officers with the fleet, Mr. Matthews being one of the correspondents who were sent with the fleet by special direction of President Roosevelt.



SIR EDWARD CREASY.

(Author of "The Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World.")

After forty years or more of absence, Mr. W. D. Howells returned to Rome and spent several seasons. His impressions of and reflections upon the city of the Cæsars as he regards it to-day

in contrast with the way he looked upon it nearly half a century ago have been brought out by the Harpers in a volume which they have entitled "Roman Holidays." In this profusely illustrated book Mr. Howells, in his own informal, intimate, and charming way, discusses the life and popular customs of the Italian capital. The pictures are from new and (many of them) hitherto unpublished photographs.

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

Mr. André Tardieu, who is the "honorary first secretary" in the French diplomatic service, and who has at different times been foreign editor of the great Paris dailies, the *Temps* and the *Journal des Debats*, recently completed a very timely and important work on European politics which the Macmillans have just brought out in this country under the title "France and the Alliances." This volume, which discusses the struggle for the balance of power in Europe and traces the slow but sure rise of France after her defeat at the hands of Germany to her present important position in the concert of the Continent, has for its basis a series of lectures delivered in the spring of the present year at Harvard University. The text of the volume is given by M. Tardieu in his preface as: "To show cultivated Americans the France of today, in presence of Europe and the world, as she has been shaped, after painful experiences, by thirty-eight years of sustained effort and diplomatic action." Beginning with a study of the Russian alliance and tracing the foreign relations of the republic up to such settlement of the Moroccan question as was made by the Algeciras convention, M. Tardieu says that, consistently and persistently, France has fought ever since 1871 for the balance of power.

Time was when Wall Street, that narrow New York thoroughfare, was the political instead of the financial center of the nation's activities. This fact is recalled to our attention by Frederick Trevor Hill's "Story of a Street" (Harpers). Long before that brilliant epoch, however, the humble Dutch burghers had made the first cattle-guard of brushwood that constituted the primitive "wall" from which the street took its name. Altogether it is a fascinating tale, cleverly told.

A new, enlarged, and thoroughly revised edition of Sir Edward Creasy's famous work, "The Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World," has been brought out by the Harpers. The original "Creasy" was issued in 1851 and considered the fifteen battles affecting the world's history from Marathon to Waterloo. In the new edition descriptions of eight battles have been added, six of which have been fought since Waterloo. These eight are: The fall of Quebec (1759), the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown (1781), Vicksburg (1863), Gettysburg (1863), Sudan (1878), Manila Bay (1898), Santiago (1898), and Tsushima, or the Sea of Japan (1905). All the descriptions are accompanied by full chronological lists of important events between each battle and the succeeding one.

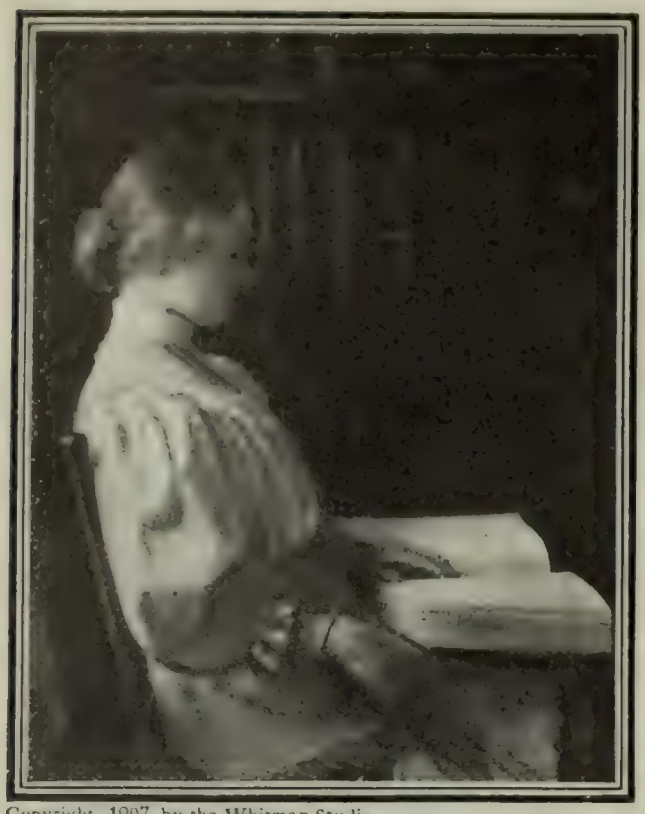
The current year has seen no brighter or more entertaining contribution to modern history or biography than the volume of reminiscences of Lady Randolph Churchill, now Mrs. George Cornwallis-West (Century). Not only has this American woman had extraordinary opportunities during the past thirty years to enjoy acquaintance with distinguished men and women in England and on the continent of Europe, but what is more to the purpose, she has a sense of proportion, a penetration of vision, and, on the whole, a sanity of judgment that enable her to present in a remarkably effective way the things that she has learned in these crowded years of observation, travel, and social intercourse. A woman of English birth similarly situated and having the same facilities would have written a wholly different narrative. It would have been far more conventional, more respectful to the privileges of titled personages, and in proportion dull and uninspired. In a volume of this kind the point of view is everything, and it is that which, to American readers at least, lends a rare charm to these memoirs. Mrs. Cornwallis-West, we may remind our readers, was the daughter of Leonard Jerome, of New York.



ERMINIA RUDERSDORFF MANSFIELD (RICHARD MANSFIELD'S MOTHER).

From an oil painting reproduced in "Richard Mansfield, the Man and the Actor."

The authorized biography of Richard Mansfield, the actor, is a work of Paul Wilstach (Scribners), who was Mansfield's intimate friend. In his lifetime the personal side of Mansfield's career was only slightly known to the public. Those who witnessed his acting formed their conceptions of the man from a study of the various characters that he represented. Mr. Wilstach attempts in this rather bulky volume to present the data for a more accurate judgment of Mansfield's career, and he discloses to the public gaze many passages of personal history that tend to throw new light on this unique personality. Not the least interesting portion of Mr. Wilstach's book is his treatment of the varied experiences of Mme. Rudersdorff, Mansfield's mother.



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HELEN KELLER IN HER STUDY.

Frontispiece (reduced) of "The World I Live In."

In a beautifully illustrated volume produced by the Century Company, Otto H. Bacher, the artist, gives his reminiscences of days passed with Whistler in Venice. Although this period in Whistler's life has been regarded as an important one, it is comparatively unfamiliar even to his friends. Mr. Bacher knew him intimately during the greater part of this period, and after Whistler's death he was requested to record his reminiscences. The volume is illustrated with many reproductions of Whistler's work and of etchings and photographs by the author.

In a sense, all of Miss Helen Keller's published writings are autobiographical in that they offer conscious or unconscious self-revelations. The little volume of essays entitled "The World I Live In" (Century), which appeared originally in the *Century Magazine*, is largely the result of suggestions to Miss Keller by the *Century's* editor, Mr. Richard Watson Gilder. These essays go farther than previous writings of Miss Keller in revealing her psychic experiences. Her papers on "The Dream World," "Dreams and Reality," and "A Waking Dream," judged solely from the point of view of literary style, are remarkable productions.

A highly interesting picture of life behind the scenes in the production of grand opera, full of humorous and dramatic anecdotes, is Angelo Neumann's "Personal Recollections of Wagner," which has just been translated from the fourth German edition by Edith Livermore and published in this country by Holt. Herr Neumann, it will be remembered, was perhaps the greatest producer of Wagner's music dramas. He knew the great composer intimately, and in this volume gives a charming account of the remarkable tours of his "traveling Wagner theater" throughout Germany, Austria, Italy, and Russia. The volume also contains intimate glimpses of Wagner himself at rehearsals, of the late Anton Seidl, of Nikisch, of the Vogls, and many other of Wagner's associates. Herr Neumann's "Recollections" may be pronounced the most important Wagner book issued since the collection of the letters of the great composer to Frau Wesendonck. The present volume has for a frontispiece, a reproduction of the Wagner bust by Anton zur Strassen. It contains other illustrations, including the fac-simile of a letter from Mr. Wagner received by Neumann after the news of the composer's death.

SPECIAL HOLIDAY EDITIONS.

It is not often that the combination of two scientific and artistic experts, each of whom can also write well, is effected in the preparation of a single volume. This combination, however, has actually been made in the preparation of a sumptuously illustrated volume on pearls just brought out for the holiday season by the Century Company. It is entitled "The Book of the Pearl," by Dr. George Frederick Kunz and Dr. Charles Hugh Stevenson. This volume, which contains 100 full-page illustrations and many others,—portraits of queens and other famous women and reproductions of wonderful historic crown jewels,—treats the pearl from every possible standpoint,—historically, descriptively, and statistically. Dr. Kunz knows more about pearls than any other man living, and Dr. Stevenson in his capacity as adviser in the United



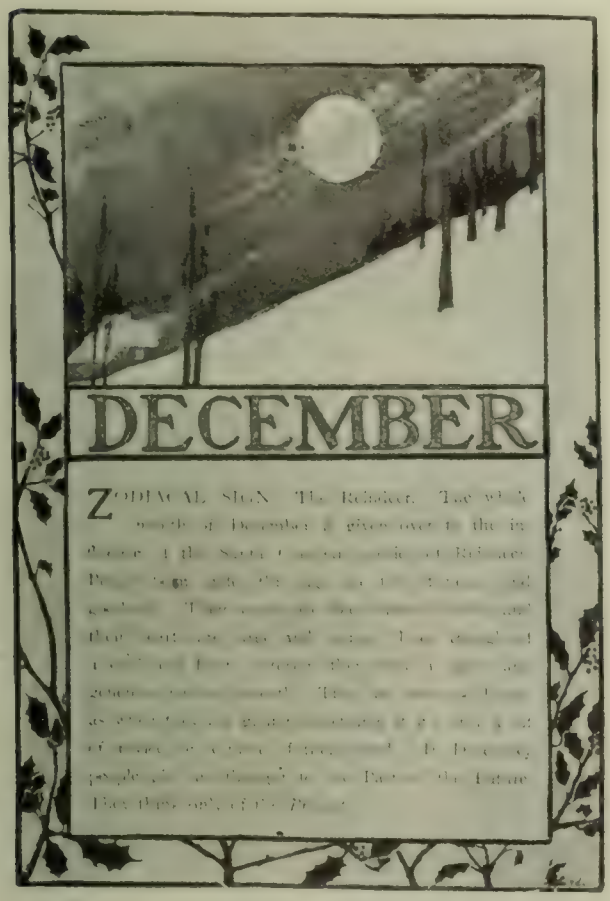
PONTE DEL PISTOR, A FAVORITE SPOT OF WHISTLER'S.

Illustration (reduced) from "With Whistler in Venice."

States Fish Commission has made some new and impressive investigations into the subject of pearl production. An interesting bibliography is appended of "the hundreds of persons who during the last 2000 years have discussed pearls,—mystically, historically, poetically, and learnedly." The frontispiece to the volume is a fine colored portrait of the Empress of Russia. There are also five maps of pearl-producing regions.

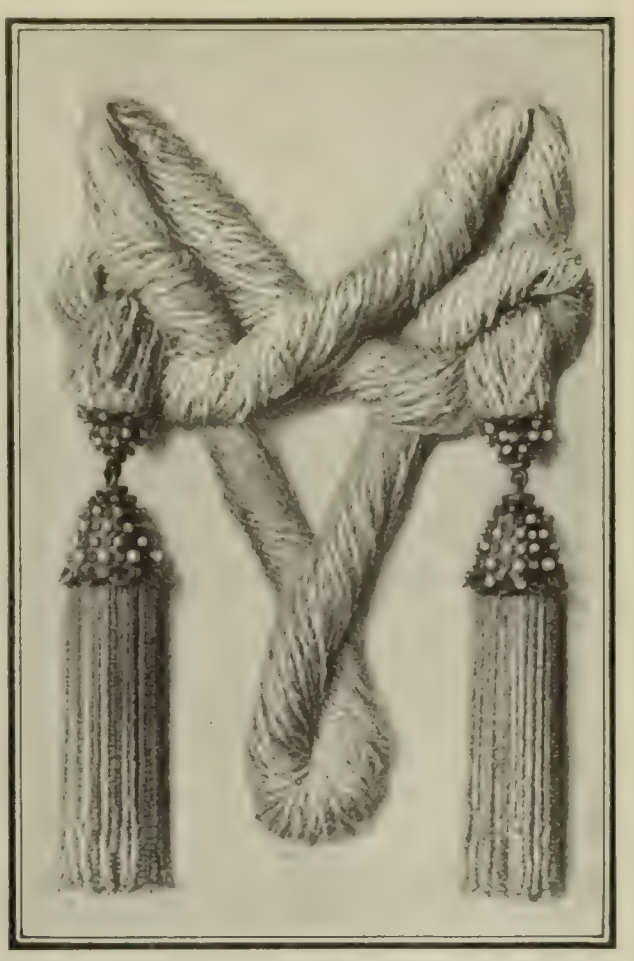
The "Henry Hutt Picture Book" (Century) is a handsome holiday collection of colored reproductions of Mr. Hutt's girl studies, to which is prefixed a biographical note about the artist himself.

A little collection of Selma Lagerlöf's "Christ Legends" (Holt) has been translated from the Swedish by Velma Swanston Howard. The book is decorated by Bertha Stuart.



A PAGE FROM "THE CAROLYN WELLS YEAR BOOK."
(Reduced.)

Three other holiday books, all illustrated in color, are "The Children's Longfellow" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), "The Chariot-Race," from "Ben-Hur" (Harper's), and "Marjorie Daw," by Thomas Bailey Aldrich (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The last-named volume is beautifully decorated in tint by John Cecil Clay, the clever magazine illustrator, who has caught the spirit of Aldrich's charming story and interprets it most effectively.



A NECKLACE OF THE LOUIS XVI. PERIOD, CONTAINING 120,000 SEED PEARLS.
Illustration (reduced) from "The Book of the Pearl."

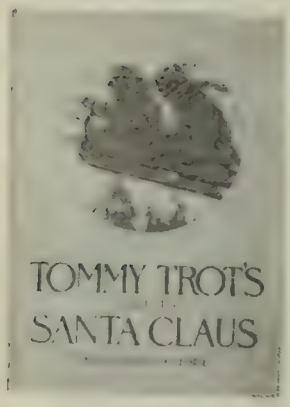
McClurg has brought out a new revised and enlarged edition of Miss Rosa Belle Holt's "Rugs: Oriental and Occidental, Antique and Modern." This handsome work, with illustrations in color and tint, has already become the standard on the subject. The publisher announces that the present edition has been entirely reset. A map of the Orient, the region from which the world's rug supply is so largely drawn, completes the volume.

First to appear of the indispensable annuals for the coming year is "The Carolyn Wells Year Book, or Old Favorites and New Fancies for 1909" (Holt). We commend especially the "General Misinformation" that introduces the volume. Under the heading, "Fixed and Movable Feasts," we read:

"Fixed Feasts are Afternoon Teas, Public Dinners, and Wedding Breakfasts.

"Movable Feasts are those eaten at sea."

THE SEASON'S BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.



Cover design (reduced).

THE young folk we conjecture will find the original stories this year lacking in interest to a high degree, and will turn rather to the twice-told tales, reprints of the classics, books of travel, and didactic books for entertainment.

From the pen of Thomas Nelson Page comes "Tommy Trot's Visit to Santa Claus," illustrated by Victor C. Anderson (Scribner), but there is little in it to suggest its becoming a classic. It lacks vital interest.

Mr. W. D. Howells contributes "Christmas Every Day," illustrated by Harriet Roosevelt Richards (Harper). It is written with grace, lightness of touch, brilliancy, and literary charm.

"The Spring Cleaning," by Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett, illustrated by Harrison Cady (Century), is perhaps a little more lively than the other "Racketty-Packetty House" stories, but its subject matter is slight.

And so on with most of the new stories; we find the retold stories and books of information more substantial.

The advance that has been made recently in colored printing has, in many cases, allowed the publisher to give a wealth of colored illustrations that are charming and valuable, while in other cases the completeness, the large number of black-and-white illustrations, and the author's mastery of the subject, make the didactic books particularly worthy both of presentation and preservation.

Among books with colored illustrations we find "The World," by Ascott R. Hope (Macmillan), with views of the building and scenes from every well-known country on the globe reproduced from original paintings, which gives them an artistic charm rarely found in the books of the past.

"New Little Americans," by Mary Hazelton Wade, frontispiece by Sears Gallagher (W. A. Wilde Company), is replete with information about the Filipinos, etc., that the child who studies "g'ography" will be glad to receive.

"The Boys' Book of Steamships," by J. R. Howden (McClure), is filled with illustrations of indisputable authenticity, far exceeding in value any encyclopedic articles we have ever seen. For the boy with a mechanical turn of mind this book is especially profitable, and any boy intending to travel will find it beneficial.



Illustration (reduced) from "The Spring Cleaning."

In "A Child's Guide to Pictures," by Charles H. Caffin (Baker & Taylor), the author assumes a great deal of authority in Ruskin-like patronizing tones, and there is an excess of waste verbiage throughout the volume, as in the chapter on "brush work and drawing," which is very loose in its definitions. But Mr. Caffin is nearly always correct in his judgment upon great pictures.

In "Pictures Every Child Should Know," by Dolores Bacon (Doubleday, Page & Co.), the pictures are well printed, but many will take exception, we fancy, to the author's verdicts, as in the critique on "Monet."



Illustration (reduced) from "Christmas Every Day."

"Poems Children Love," by Penrhyn W. Coussens (Dodge Publishing Company), is not illustrated, which we think regrettable, but the collection is a rich one, containing all the old favorites, and some new verses by Field, Stevenson, and Julia Ward Howe, that are suitable for children's books.

"The Tortoise and the Geese, and Other Fables of Bidpai," retold by Maude Barrows Dutton, illustrated by E. Boyd Smith (Houghton, Mifflin Company), are short and to the point, but they have not the qualities that appeal to the young.



FOLKLORE—LEGEND—HISTORY.

There is a rich assortment this year of standard stories retold for youthful readers, and it is a pleasure to recommend them, for even if all the writers have not the fluent pens of an "Uncle Remus," a Kingsley, or a Dickens, the stories they tell have within them the perennial interest that belongs to the classics. And though the youth forgets the manner of narration, he can never forget the matter that is told in such folklore tales as "Old Man Coyote," by Clara Kern Bayliss, illustrated by Edward Blaisdell (Crowell), or in tales of classical heroes, as "The Æneid for Boys and Girls," by Professor Church (Macmillan), in "Stories of Persian Heroes," by E. M. W. Buxton, or in the chronicles of such historical characters as in "The Story of Frederick the Great for Boys and Girls," by Kate E. Carpenter (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard).

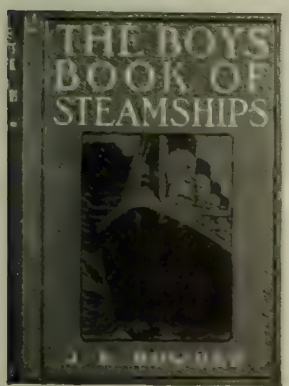


Cover design (reduced).

Clifton Johnson has edited "The Elm Tree Fairy Book," illustrated by Lejaren Hiller (Little, Brown & Co.), by omitting "the savagery, distressing details, and excessive pathos" of which we have often complained as marring the "Andrew Lang" fairy books. The illustrations are decorative in arrangement, but the characters are rather gross in type.

A similar book is "The Children's Treasure Trove of Pearls," edited by Mary Wilder Tileson (Little, Brown & Co.), containing a collection of stories published some fifty years ago that are worth rereading, though many of them have the old-time carnivorous features that Mr. Johnson has avoided.

A charming little edition of "Brave Beowulf," by Thomas Cartwright, is illustrated by Patten Wilson (Dutton). One of the pictures especially, "The Last of Beowulf," is simply a marvel of chromatic typography.



Cover design (reduced).

"The Child's Rip Van Winkle," adapted from Washington Irving, illustrated in color by Maria L. Kirk (Stokes), makes an ideal child's story. The artist's work cannot compare with Mr. Rackham's Rip Van Winkle drawings, and though entirely without grace and draftsmanship, there is an element of realism, a life-likeness, in the expression that will please the children, and as the color tones are subdued they are not at all offensive.

"Grimm's Fairy Tales," illustrated by J. R. Monsell (Cassell & Co.), has a number of illustrations of variable quality, but mostly good, and a great number of pen drawings full of action, though they are not drawn with that

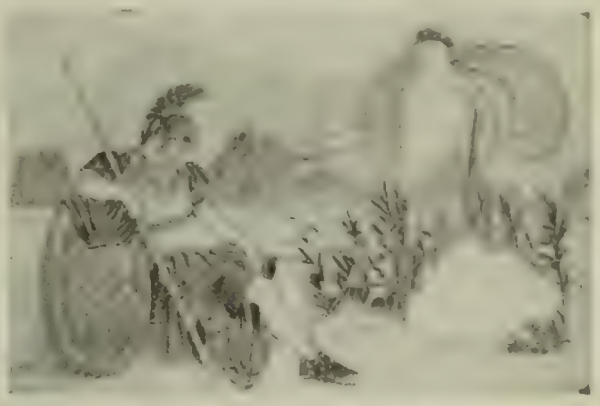


Illustration (reduced) from "The Æneid for Boys and Girls."

sensitiveness for perfect typographical design that inspired Walter Crane when he made the head and tail pieces for his edition of "Grimm's," yet they are decorative and animated, and nearly every page is interesting to the child reader. All the decorations in this article without a title are from this book.

PICTURE BOOKS.

The making of an original picture book is an almost impossible task. The idea of a hole through a piece of paper has excited interest in advertising pictures, but this novelty has perhaps never been used before in a child's book, so that Peter Newell deserves credit for the original idea in "The Hole Book" (Harper). Little Tom Potts does not know that a pistol is loaded, it goes off in his hand, smashes a clock, makes a hole through the wall, on its further journey punctures a number of objects, like the kitchen boiler, an automobile, etc., but is stopped at last by the cake that Miss Newlywed has made, for "the bullet struck its armor belt, and meekly flattened out!" Mr. Newell's verses are pithy and bright, but the illustrations do not seem as spontaneous as some of his earlier works.

The very name of "The Pinafore Picture Book," and the guaranty that the story of "H. M. S. Pinafore" is told by Sir W. S. Gilbert (Macmillan), suggest a rare treat for the children, and good matter for reading aloud to



Illustration (reduced) from "Brave Beowulf."



Illustration (reduced) from "The Child's Rip Van Winkle."



Illustration (reduced) from "Peeps at Many Lands —The World."

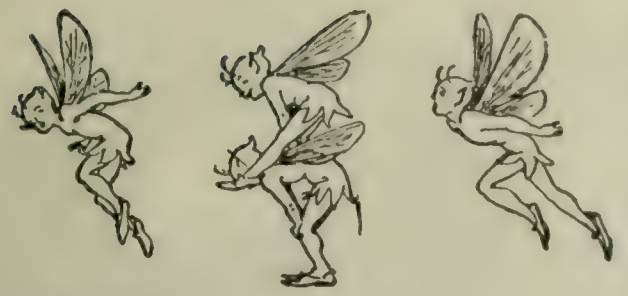
them. It is certainly an ideal condition to let a librettist explain in prose the meaning of the story he has told in verse; and Gilbert assures the reader, in prose, the meaning of his lines and "makes assurance doubly sure" by little asides, as it were, in the form of foot-notes,



Illustration (reduced) from "The Hole Book."



Cover design (reduced).



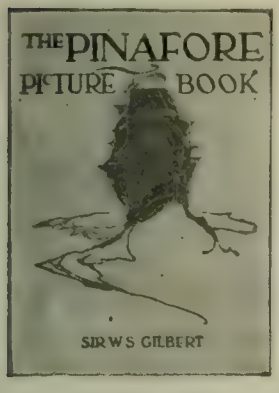
that are as entertaining as the text. Unluckily, however, the illustrations are far from satisfactory. They are not conceived in the spirit of banter that should be in keeping with the text. The style that Gilbert used in his illustrations to his own "Bab Ballads" would be a much better style for such a text..

The illustrating of children's books is a much higher art than most people think it is. It is akin to Greek vase painting, and should be simple and direct, as well as decorative. Kate Greenaway, Crane, and Caldecott have shown the superiority of simplicity, directness, and decorative quality, and complex drawings are no longer welcome.

Generally the illustrated series that appear in the newspapers rather pall on us when collected in book form. There is usually "too much of a muchness" when we have them in the allopathic doses of book form, but "In Peanut Land" verses and pictures by Eva Dean (Fenno & Co.), seem more attractive than when the verses appeared homeopathically in the *Herald*. The rich black of the outline and shading appears more artistic in the book page than when printed in the newspaper page.

Miss Estelle M. Kerr has written verses, not so very well, but made the pictures in very good style, for a folio volume entitled "Little Sam in Volendam" (Moffat, Yard & Co.). The group on page twenty-one is charmingly conceived and well executed.

"Bird Legend and Life," by Margaret Coulson Walker (Baker & Taylor), is illustrated in a very satisfactory way. The quotations are apt and succinct, and there is much information in the text.



Cover design (reduced)

One sometimes speculates as to whether the entertainment we have always received from the "Alice" books has not been discounted by the boredom we have had to suffer from the parodies, we might say, that subsequently have appeared perennially. A certain chord of genuineness was struck as in "The Wizard of Oz," and the fact that a successful play was made from it counts in its favor, but when an obvious imitation in play form is then transmuted into book form, as in the case of "Top o' the World," by Mark E. Swan, pictures by Hy. Mayer (Dutton), we get our genuine notes so thoroughly diluted that there is not enough to build up a page story in a juvenile paper, let alone a bulky volume. And Hy. Mayer has not added a great deal to the value of the book by his illustrations, for they lack the refinement and artistic taste that such pictures should have.

The pictures, both in color and black and white, by Elenore Plaisted Abbot and Helen Alden Knipe, illustrating Millicent Olmsted's "The Land of Never Was" (Jacobs & Co.), are of a far more satisfactory character for the nursery room, but the text is slight.

Miss Carolyn Wells writes verses that have a swing to them, and such vivid descriptions that children can find "a laugh on every page" of "The Happy-chaps," illustrated by Harrison Cady (Century), but she does not work out her story to a climax with the same art as that with which she describes details, and we doubt if the children will accept the entire story with particular enthusiasm.

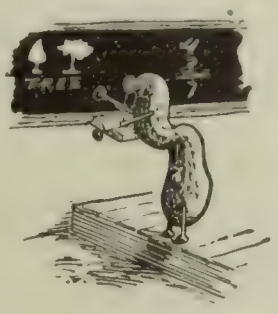


Illustration (reduced) from "In Peanut Land."

PLAIN TALES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.

"Harry's Island," by Ralph Henry Barbour, illustrated by C. M. Relyea (Century), is an



Illustration (reduced) from "The Children's Treasure Trove of Pearls."

island on which three happy boys camp. It is owned by Mr. Emery, who presents it to his daughter "Harry" as a birthday present,—she having been a frequent visitor to the camp during the summer. "Harry" is a charming girl.

The story of a little boy who, despite the early prejudice against him, wins the hearts of his stern aunts, is set forth in "How Richard Won Out," by Mary Knight Potter, frontispiece by William P. Stecher (W. A. Wilde Company).

In "The Wide-Awake Girls," by Katherine Ruth Ellis (Little, Brown & Co.), little Hannah writes a letter to a magazine which brings her into correspondence with girls living in different countries abroad. She afterward lives with these in turn, and her adventures are chronicled in the book.

"Princess Wisla," by Sophie Swett, illustrated by Frank T. Merrill (Little, Brown & Co.), is the story of a little girl who, having upset her boat, is picked up by an Indian who wants to adopt her.



In "The Browns at Mt. Hermon," by "Pansy," illustrated by Elizabeth Withington (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard), a wealthy young woman goes to California as a servant in place of another girl of the same name.

The story of a little girl who twice saves her boy playmate from being kidnapped, is told in "Miss Betty of New York," by Ellen Douglas Deland, illustrated by Rachel Robinson (Harper). Though old the subject matter is absorbing.



Illustration (reduced) from "The Happychaps."

"Helen Grant, Graduate," by Amanda M. Douglas Deland, illustrated by Amy Brooks (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard), is a story of a group of bright, happy college girls.

"The Hero of Pigeon Camp," by Martha James, illustrated by J. W. Kennedy (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard), is the story of a brave Italian boy, who saves the lives of a boy and girl playmate.



Illustration (reduced) from "Top o' the World."

"Brave Little Peggy," by Nina Rhoades, illustrated by Bertha Davidson Hoxie (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard), tells us of a little girl who travels across the States alone.

From Paul Elder & Co. comes "The Little Brown Hen Hears the Song of the Nightingale," by Jasmine Stone Van Dresser.

From Holt come "The Adopting of Rosa Marie," by Carroll Watson Rankin, and "Pete, Cow Puncher," by Joseph B. Ames.

"Rover the Farm Dog," by Lily F. Wesselhoeft (Little, Brown & Co.), is a story of a dog who plays foster mother to a family of kittens.

"Barbara and the Five Little Purrs," by Elizabeth Lincoln Gould (Caldwell Company), is a well-told cat story, and the pictures by Josephine Bruce are delightful.

Dogs play an important part in "The Christmas Letter," which is told in very good verse by Sara Tawney Lefferts, illustrated by Wuanita Smith (Cupples & Leon Company), and the pictures are animated.

First among the books in simple language for the Little Folks is a story by Gertrude Smith, for in her "Little Ned Happy and Flora," illustrated by Henrietta A. Adams (Harper), she makes so much out of the little nothings that happen in a tiny child's life,—Flora is a real child, but Little Ned is only an imaginary companion she invents,—and the language is so suited to young people's mentality that one feels that few authors turn out such perfect workmanship in this branch of juvenile literature.

HALF FICTION: HALF HISTORY.

Fiction and history are intermingled in "How Canada was Won: A Tale of Wolf and Quebec," by Captain F. S. Brereton, illustrated by William Rainey (Caldwell Company), in "Three Years Behind the Guns," by L. G. F., illustrated by Chris Jorgensen and George Varian (Century), and in "The Imprisoned Midshipmen," by Molly Elliot Seawell, illustrated by Walter Briggs (Appletons).



Illustration (reduced) from "Little Sam in Volendam."

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

AN INTERNATIONAL MAGAZINE

JULY

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Government as a Spender

Fallières: Ideal French President

How Taft and Sherman Were Nominated

The New Bryan as Democracy's Leader

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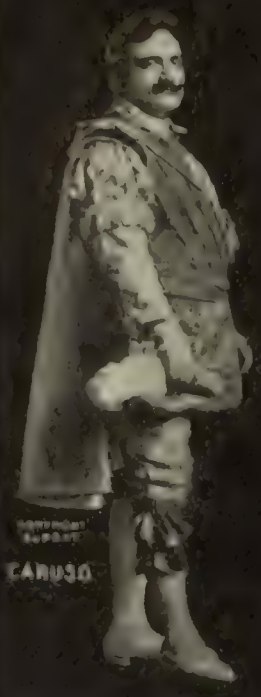
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